A History of Indian Medical Liferature

VOLUME IA

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ॐ भद्रं सर्वेभ्यो भूतेभ्यः

TO HANNIE UXORI CARAE पतिव्रतायै



Azadirachta indica A. Juss. Nimba Āryavēppu

G. Jan Meulenbeld

A History of Indian Medical Literature

VOLUME IA TEXT

EGBERT FORSTEN · GRONINGEN

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Preface

The initial impetus to the writing of this survey of Indian medical literature is due to Prof. J. Gonda, who, more than twenty years ago, after the publication of my thesis on the Mādhavanidāna, asked me to consider composing a concise book on the subject, to be issued as one of the fascicles of A history of Indian literature he was editing.

Rashness made me comply with his request. Rather soon it became apparent that a reliable survey required a preparatory descriptive analysis of the texts and a study of their chronological positions.

Accordingly, I began writing these analyses. This time-consuming activity resulted in the accumulation of an amount of information that could not possibly be compressed in the space allotted to the planned fascicle. The work kept growing, gradually assuming a shape and size that necessitated abandonment of the original design and another way of publication.

After large stretches had been written, the prospect of the possibility of publication led to a collaboration with The Wellcome Institute for the History of Medicine in London, and, in particular, with Dr. D. Wujastyk, attached to this Institute. Over several years he has been helpful to me in many respects. I appreciate the efforts he made in looking after my interests. His expertise and advice facilitated the conversion of my writings into computer files. I acknowledge with gratitude the secretarial assistance of the Wellcome Institute over a long period of time. Several persons spent much time on reading my hand-written pages and processing them. In a later stage, secretarial help has also been forthcoming from the Seminar für Geschichte und Kultur des Vorderen Orients of the University of Hamburg, thanks to Prof. R.E. Emmerick, and from the Institut für Geschichte der Medizin of the University of Munich, thanks to Prof. P.U. Unschuld.

After interruption of my contacts with the Wellcome Institute, due to editorial problems, wholehearted support from a number of Dutch organizations and several persons from my own country safeguarded my work from the danger of remaining unpublished. The offer to accept it as a set of volumes of the Groningen Oriental Series secured its future.

I acknowledge with gratitude the unconditional readiness to further my interests of Prof. H.T. Bakker of the Institute for Religious Studies of the University of Groningen and of Prof. H.W. Bodewitz of the Kern Institute of the University of Leiden. My publisher, Egbert Forsten, mobilized the resources at his disposal and was always helpful by word and deed. The expertise of Dr. Roelf Barkhuis made the production process run smoothly and efficiently.

x Preface

The publication of my work has been made possible by grants from the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) and the J. Gonda Foundation of the Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences.

I should like to thank Prof. R.E. Emmerick of the University of Hamburg for his sincere interest in my work, which has encouraged and stimulated me.

All colleagues and friends who have helped me in persevering during long years of labour may be assured of my appreciation of their assistance.

My daily prop and stay has been my wife Hannie, without whose loyalty this work could never have been completed.

Contents

Abbrevi	ations		xiii
Introduc	tion		1
Part 1	Carakasaıphitā	,	7
1	Sütrasthāna		9
2	Nidānasthāna		27
3	Vimānasthāna		31
4	Śārīrasthāna		38
5	Indriyasthāna		48
6	Cikitsāsthāna		51
7	Kalpasthāna		81
8	Siddhisthāna		86
9	General features		93
10	Caraka, his identity and date		105
11	Caraka in the Islamic world		116
12	Caraka in Tibet		117
13	Authorities associated with the Carakasamhitā		119
14	Authorities mentioned in the Carakasamhitā		145
15	Commentaries on the Carakasamhitā		180
Part 2	Suśrutasamhitā		201
1	Sūtrasthāna		203
2	Nidānasthāna		234
3	Śārīrasthāna		243
4	Cikitsāsthāna		262
5	Kalpasthāna		289
6	Uttaratantra		300
7	Suśruta and the Suśrutasamhitā		333
Q	Authorities associated with the Sugrutasamhita		358

xii Contents

9	Authorities mentioned in the Suśrutasamhita,	369
	but absent from the Carakasamhitā	372
10	Commentaries on the Suśrutasamhitā	312
PART 3	Astāngahrdayasamhitā	391
1	Sütrasthāna	393
_	Śārīrasthāna	410
3	Nidānasthāna	415
4	Cikitsitasthāna	426
5	Kalpasiddhisthāna	438
6	Uttarasthāna	442
DART 1	Astāṅgasamgraha	475
1	Sūtrasthāna	477
2		515
_	Nidānasthāna	533
4		538
5	•	554
6	•	560
D . nm 6	N7 ald acc	595
	Vagbhata Vagbhata and the works ascribed to him	597
-	Authorities mentioned in the works ascribed to Vāgbhata,	
	but absent from Caraka- and Suśrutasamhitā	65
3	Commentaries on the works ascribed to Vāgbhata	66
		68
APPEN		68
variou	s ancient authorities	

Abbreviations

Abhinavanighantu Caube, D. (1901).

ABI Atrideva Vidyālankāra (1976).

ABORI Annals of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute.

AIAD Mooss, N.S. (1938; 1949).
AIOC All India Oriental Conference.
Ali, S. and Ripley, S.D. Ali, S. and Ripley, S.D. (1983).
ASB Asiatic Society of Bengal.

Aştāngahṛdayakoşa Vaidya, K.M. (1936). AV Atharvaveda. AVI Sharma, P.V. (1975c).

Āyurvedasaukhya Bhagwan Dash and Lalitesh Kasyap (1980, etc.).

BDHM Bulletin of the Department of History of Medicine, Osmania

Medical College, Hyderabad.

BHM Bulletin of the History of Medicine.

BHU Banāras Hindu University.

BIHM Bulletin of the Institute of History of Medicine, Osmania

Medical College, Hyderabad.

BIIHM Bulletin of the Indian Institute of History of Medicine, Osma-

nia Medical College, Hyderabad.

BIM Bulletin of Indian Medicine.

BL British Library.

BNISI Bulletin of the National Institute of Sciences of India.

Bod. Cat. see Cat. Oxford.

BORI Bhandarkar Oriental Institute.

BSOAS Bulletin of the School of Oriental and African Studies,

London.

Cat. Anup Sanskrit Kunhan Raja, C. and Madhava Krishna Sarma, K. (1948).

Library

Cat. B.B.R.A.S. Velankar, H.D. (1926; 1928; 1930).

Cat. Berlin Weber, A. (1853).

Cat. BHU Tripathi, Rama Shankar (1984). Cat. Bikaner Mitra, Rājendralāla (1880).

Cat. Calcutta Sanskrit Hrīshikeśa Śāstrī and Śiva Chandra Gui (1906).

College IX

Cat. IO Eggeling, J. (1896). Cat. Jammu Stein, M.A. (1894). Cat. Madras Kuppuswami Sastri, S. (1918). Cat. Mysore Malladevaru, H.P. (1986).

Cat. München Jolly, J. (1912).
Cat. Oxford I Aufrecht, Th. (1864).

Cat. Oxford II Winternitz, M. and Keith, A.B. (1905).

Cat. Punyavijayaji Shah, A. (1965). Cat. Skt. MSS Aufrecht, Th. (1869).

Cambridge

Cat. Skt. MSS N.-W. P. A catalogue of Sanskrit manuscripts in private libraries of the

North-Western Provinces (1874; 1877–78).

Cat. Tanjore Sastri, P.P.S. (1933).

Cat. Vijayasevasūri Catalogue of Sanskrit and Prakrit manuscripts, Āc. Vijaya-

sevasūri's and Āc. Kṣāntisūri's collections, Ahmedabad 1968.

CBORI Sharma, Har Dutt (1939).

CC Aufrecht, Th., Catalogus Catalogorum.

CESS Pingree, D., Census of the exact sciences in Sanskrit.

Check-list Rama Rao, B. (1972).

Chopra's Glossary Chopra, R.N., Nayar, S.L., Chopra, I.C. (1956).

CHSI Bose, D.M., Sen, S.N., Subbarayappa, B.V. (1971).

Coll. Punyavijayaji Anonymous (1965). Dave Dave, K.N. (1985).

Der kleine Pauly

Ziegler, K. and Sontheimer, W. (1979).

DGV

Šarmā, Priyavrat (1975d; 1977a; 1980; 1981).

Dowson, J. (1968).

DWH Dymock, W., Warden, C.J.H., Hooper, D. (1972).

EI Encyclopaedia of Islam.

EIM Ramachandra Rao, S.K. (1985).
EIMI Ramachandra Rao, S.K. (1985).
ERE Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics.

Filliozat, Liste
Flora of India 1
Flora of India 12
Flora of India 12
Gambier-Parry
Filliozat, J. (1934).
Sharma, B.D. et al. (1993).
Hajra, P.K. et al. (1995).
Gambier-Perry, T.R. (1930).

GOML Government Oriental Manuscripts Library.

Gulabkunverba ed. ff of the Carakasamhitā.

Haas, Cat. BM Haas, E. (1876). Haas, E. Haas, E. (1876a; 1877). Hamdard Said, H.M. (1970).

Haridattaśāstrin upodghāta to ed. ee of the Carakasamhitā.

HCIP Majumdar, R.C. (Gen. Ed.), History and Culture of the Indian

People.

Hemarājaśarman's Sanskritupodghāta to his ed. of the Kāśya-

pasamhitā.

Abbreviations xv

HIL Gonda, J. (Ed.), A history of Indian literature.

HIM Mukhopadhyaya, G. (1974).

HK Hilgenberg, L. and Kirfel, W. (1941).

HMI Sharma, P.V. (Ed.) (1992a).

Yule, H. and Burnell, A.C. (1968).

Hooker Hooker, J.D. (1961). Hopkins Hopkins, E. W. (1974).

IC Indian Culture.

IHQ Indian Historical Quarterly.
IIJ Indo-Iranian Journal.

IJEB Indian Journal of Experimental Biology.
IJHM Indian Journal of History of Medicine.
IJHS Indian Journal of History of Science.
IJMR Indian Journal of Medical Research.

IL Vogel, C. (1979).
IO India Office.
JA Journal Asiatique.

Jaggi, O.P.

JAI Bhatnāgar, R. (1984).

JAMA Journal of the American Medical Association.

JAOS Journal of the American Oriental Society.

JASB Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

JBBRAS Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.

JBNHS Journal of the Bombay Natural History Society
JBORS Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society.

JBRS Journal of the Bihar Research Society.

JEĀS Journal of the European Āyurvedic Society.

JRAS Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society.

JRASB Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal.

JREIM Journal of Research and Education in Indian Medicine.

JRIM Journal of Research in Indian Medicine.

JTSML Journal of the Tanjore Saraswati Mahal Library.

Kane Kane, P.V., History of Dharmaśās a. Kaviratna translation a of the Carakasarnhitā.
Kirtikar and Basu Kirtikar, K.R. and Basu, B.D. (1981).
Macdonell and Keith Majumdar, R.C.
Majumdar, R.C. (1948).

Mayrhofer, M. (1956; 1963; 1976).

Mitchiner Mitchiner, J.E. (1982).

Mitra, R., Notices Mitra, R. (1874), etc.

Monier-Williams Mookerjee, Bhudeb MW Monier-Williams, M. (1951).

Modkarni Nadkarni, A.K. (1954).

xvi Abbreviations

NCC New Catalogus Catalogorum.
NIA New Indian Antiquary.

OL(Z) Orientalistische Literaturzeitung.

Oldenberg, H. (1923).
Peterson, A report Poona Orientalist.

PW Böhtlingk, O. and Roth, R. (1966). RASB Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal.

Ray, P. c.s. Rāy, P., Gupta, H.N. and Roy, M. (1980).

RE Wissowa, G.

Rechung Rinpoche (1973).

RV Rgveda.

Śāstrī, Notices Śāstrī, H. (1900).

Śāstrī, R. Śāstrī, Kavirāj Ratnākar (1977).

Śāstrī, Vardhamān Introduction to the edition of the Kalvānakāraka.

Pārśvanāth

Satya Prakash, Kavirāj Ratnākar (1965). Sharma, P.V. translation d of the Carakasaṃhitā. Sharma, R.K. and translation c of the Carakasaṃhitā.

Bhagwan Dash

Shastri, A.M. Shastri, A.M. (1969).

SHM Studies in History of Medicine, published by the Depart-

ment of History of Medicine and the Institute of History of Medicine and Medical research, Tughlaqabad, New Delhi.

Shukla, V., I Shukla, V. (1977).

SICH Gode, P.K., Studies in Indian Cultural History.

SII Studien zur Indologie und Iranistik.

SILH Gode, P.K., Studies in Indian Literary History.

Singhal c.s. translation f of the Suśrutasamhitā.

STMI Rahman. A. et al. (1982).

V. Śukla Śukla, V. (1977).

SūramcandraSūramcandra (1978).Tāntrika SāhityaGopīnāth Kavirāj (1972).Tawney and PenzerPenzer, N.M. (1924–1928).

Todara Bhagwan Dash and Lalitesh Kashyap (1980–1994).

Vanauşadhicandrodaya Bhandarī, Ś. (1956–1968). Vanauşadhidarpana Gupta, B.Ch. (1908; 1909). Vettam Mani (1989).

VOHD Janert, K.L. Vṛddhatrayī Hāldār, G. (1963).

VŚS Umeśacandragupta (1914).

Watt, G. (1972).

WIHM The Wellcome Institute for the History of Medicine.

Abbreviations xvii

Wilson, H.H.	Wilson, H.H. (1972).		
Winternitz	Winternitz, M. (1968).		

WIRM The Wealth of India: Raw Materials.

WZKM Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes. WZKSA Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde Südasiens. WZKSOA Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde Süd- und Ostasiens. ZDMG

Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft.

A.h.	Astāngahrdayasamhitā.
A.s.	Astāngasamgraha.
Ca.	Carakasamhitā.
Ci.	Cikitsāsthāna.
I.	Indriyasthāna.
Ka.	Kalpasthāna.
Ni.	Nidānasthāna.
Śā.	Śārīrasthāna.
Si.	Siddhisthāna.
Su.	Suśrutasamhitā.
Sū.	Sūtrasthāna.
	Dan monatura.

U. Uttarasthāna, Uttaratantra.

Vi. Vimānasthāna.

Unverified references are marked with an asterisk.

The scientific literature of India, to a large extent written in Sanskrit, usually has not been a subject to which indologists felt attracted and has repeatedly been described as a neglected area of research.

The medical literature shared this fate, which may explain the paucity of critical editions and translations by Western scholars.

This situation has probably contributed to the fact that Indian medicine is a relatively neglected area in works on the history of medicine. Seen from a wider perspective, encompassing the great civilizations of the world, the medical art that originated in the Indian subcontinent deserves more attention than it has received. Like Greek medicine, it spread over a large area, comprising Central Asia and a large part of Southeast Asia; Buddhist circles in China and Japan were interested in and influenced by it.

While Greek medicine lost its dominant position in the West, and lives on, restrictedly, within Islamic medicine, as a transformed offshoot, Indian medicine can boast a continuous history, spanning more than two millennia, a living and still developing practice, and an ongoing literary activity.

European interest in the medical art and achievements of the Indians was keen in the period of colonial expansion. The rich and varied flora of the country and the actions attributed to a large number of medicinal plants were intensively studied. The Coloquios of Garcia da Orta and the monumental Hortus Indicus Malabaricus of Henricus Adrianus van Rheede van Draakenstein are outstanding examples of Portuguese and Dutch activities in this field respectively.

Some early representatives of Indology gave evidence of a considerable measure of curiosity towards Indian medicine and its materia medica in their writings. Several articles by no less a celebrity than Sir William Jones can be referred to as testimonies. Another famous scholar, Horace Hayman Wilson, also evinced the importance he attached to the subject in a number of publications.

It is not within the scope of this introduction to review and discuss the early contributions to the study of Indian medicine, which largely date from the nineteenth century. Those interested can find much suitable material in a publication by A. Roşu (1989: Introduction XLIII–LI), devoted to the pioneering work of G. Liétard and P. Cordier. The earlier interactions between Western and Indian physicians have been dealt with in an article by T.J.S. Patterson (1987).

Recent times show an undeniable surge of interest in non-Western systems of medicine, that of India included. The mere quantity of books on ayurveda in general and on the Indian medicinal flora in particular bear witness to this development. Unfortunately, their quality lags far behind their quantity. The majority of the authors

present a biased, historically unfaithful picture, obscuring some of the facts and thus distorting the truth.

A factual history of Indian medicine and its literature ought to show respect for both basic agreements and divergences of opinion expressed in the sources. Continuity in thought and practice and processes of change over the centuries should be described with an equal degree of attention and accuracy.

Actually, this is hardly ever to be seen.

The renaissane of āyurveda since about the middle of the nineteenth century - historically a fascinating phenomenon - made its protagonists and their epigones feel called upon to sketch a profile of this science that would be serviceable in the competitive struggle with Western medicine. The revival thus led to the construction of a unitary and coherent model of Indian medicine, weaned from inconsistencies and untenable concepts, and, particularly, as free from magical and religious elements as possible. The ancient terms for physiological and pathophysiological processes, nosological entities, etc., were diligently re-interpreted to bring them into line with terms derived from Western medicine. These procedures resulted in the appearance of a type of āyurveda that can best de designated as navyāyurveda or neo-āyurveda.

I have wied to find examples of the methods resorted to in this system and to illustrate the inappropriateness of the attempts to make ayurveda into for worldwide use.

In my view, Indian medicine is thoroughly embedded in the culture of the subcontinent and cannot adequately be studied and understood without acquaintance with its history and ways of thought. Conversely, knowledge of medical concepts will certainly illuminate problems that would otherwise remain obscure.

Medical treatises abound in material relevant to cultural history, and many nonmedical texts contain data pertaining to medicine, which demonstrates that medical science constitutes an integral part of the Indian civilization.

A reliable and up-to-date history of Indian medicine and its literature is therefore unquestionably desirable. For a very long time, such a work has been a desideratum. Since the beginning of the twentieth century, no Western author has written a monograph on the subject.

J. Jolly's *Medicin*, written in German and published in 1901, surveys the medical literature concisely, in nineteen pages, and gives a still valuable summary of medical theory and practice. C.G. Kashikar, who translated J. Jolly's work into English (1951; second, revised edition 1977), provided it with supplementary notes, but after him no other author incorporated newly acquired knowledge in the existing survey or in a new publication.

In contrast with indologists of Western origin, Indian scholars produced a large number of books on the history of Indian medicine and its literature. Many of these are uncritical, but some are interesting and valuable. A few became relatively well known, whereas other publications, undeservedly, received almost no attention, being in Sanskrit, or, more often, in Hindī. The most important among these are frequently referred to in my annotations.

Girindranath Mukhopadhyaya's History of Indian medicine in three volumes

(1922–1929; second edition 1974) presents much useful information, as does the recent *History of medicine in India (from antiquity to 1000 A.D.)*, edited by P.V. Sharma (1992). Gurupada Hāldār's *Vṛddhatrayī* (1963), composed in Sanskrit and dealing mainly with the classical treatises and the authorities associated with them, has to be consulted with caution, due to the idiosyncratic views of the author.

Noteworthy publications in Hindī are Atrideva Vidyālańkāra's Āyurved kā bṛhat itihās (1960; second edition 1976), Kavirāj Vāgīśvar Śukla's Sacitra āyurved kā itihās (1952; second edition 1978) and Kavirāj Sūramcandra's Āyurved kā itihās (1952; second edition 1978). The books by Atrideva and V. Śukla are comprehensive and discuss a large proportion of medical literature, rasaśāstra included, while that by Sūramcandra is concerned with ancient authorities.

Some more books in Hindī to be read with profit are Ratnākar Śāstrī's Bhārat ke prāṇācārya (1977), dealing extensively with a number of ancient authorities and their works, and Prācīn bhārat meṃ rasāyan kā vikās (1960) by Satyaprakāś, which is about a number of basic medical texts and a long series of works on rasaśāstra.

Among the works in Hindī mentioned so far, the most useful book is that by Atrideva.

Outstanding and of the first rank among the publications in Hindī is Priyavrat Śarmā's Āyurved kā vaijñānik itihās (1975). As indicated in its titlan this courtenantly hensive survey of medical literature gives evidence of a scientific attitude. For that reason, it is the one I most frequently refer to. The numerous books and articles by its industrious and prolific author have been a constant source of inspiration to me. In spite of my disagreement with opinions expressed by P.V. Sharma, he remains the Indian scholar I most esteem and admire.

The present work comprises the entire corpus of Sanskrit medical texts, from the earliest times to the present, thus covering about two millennia. Vedic medicine is not one of its subjects, since no exclusively medical treatises are known belonging to that branch of Indian literature. Those interested in this early stage may turn to the recent study of K.G. Zysk (1985) and the numerous earlier contributions. References to Vedic texts will be found in my annotations, whenever relevant. The same applies to texts forming part of the Buddhist Pali canon.

Treatises on medicine written in Prakrit or Pali have been included, as well as a few in Hindī.

Apart from the strictly medical texts, I incorporated a number of encyclopaedias with sections relating to medicine, some Purāṇas with medical chapters, and some Tantric works containing interesting material.

Siddha medical literature, mostly written in Tamil, has been left undiscussed, although a not inconsiderable number of the large body of texts is available in editions. My very limited competence in Tamil is the main reason for this omission.

The medical literature in Sanskrit that has been preserved in manuscripts is vast. Many important texts have been edited, some even very often, but a large mass remains unstudied. Many editions of lesser known treatises are rare and not easily accessible, because libraries possessing a sizable collection are few.

For the purpose of writing my survey I chiefly relied on my own collection of texts.

The secondary literature, extensive too, has been brought together during many years and derives for the most part from many Dutch libraries.

The texts described and analysed are therefore those that were available to me in editions. Manuscripts were not studied, except in a few cases, and manuscript catalogues have mostly been gone through unsystematically, depending on their degree of accessibility.

Text editions are provided with an asterisk in all cases where I did not set eyes on them. Editions present in the British Library and the India Office are recorded with their numbers as given in published catalogues, without an asterisk, because I consider the information to be trustworthy.

With the restrictions mentioned, the texts analysed in my survey constitute a large part of those thought to be of importance. Depending on the available data, the remaining ones are more concisely described or simply mentioned, with reference to my source or sources.

Besides the works on human āyurveda, those on veterinary medicine have been put in, since they form part of the same system of thought and practice.

Rasaśāstra (alchemy and iatrochemistry) and āyurveda are overlapping areas and became intimately connected with each otherin the course of time. Many texts can only be classified as intermediate between the two or as belonging to both at the same time. For this reason my survey embraces the literature on rasaśāstra. The close alliance between rasaśāstra and ratnaśāstra (the science dealing with precious and semi-precious stones) made me accept works on this subject too.

The treatises on vṛkṣāyurveda (the cultivation of trees, shrubs, etc., and the treatment of plant diseases) have been left out. The literature on this subject has been studied in a recent book by R.P. Das (1988).

My work is neither a continuous history of Indian medical literature, nor a history of Indian medicine that, in a chronological order, sketches progressive and regressive lines of development, losses and growth regarding theory and practice, changes in the materia medica and the types of preparations employed, etc., although a great deal of scattered information can be found in it.

The conviction that an ongoing story requires a preceding systematic review of the sources prompted me to begin this enterprise and kept me going. Now that this task has finally been accomplished, someone else may take upon himself the duty of composing a readable, yet accurate and detached, history of Indian medicine and its literature.

The coming into being of this survey has taken so many years that multiple traces of this long process of gestation will clearly show in the final product. A thorough harmonization of all the component parts proved to be impracticable.

One of my aims, however, made in an early stage and adhered to until the very end has been to adopt, as far as possible (mainly in volume II), one and the same basic scheme in my description of texts: contents first, special features next, and information on author and date at the end. The majority of the chapters have an alphabetical arrangement based on the names of authors. This principle has been given up in the chapters on nineteenth- and twentieth-century works, ordered according to their titles, on account of the difficulties presented by the names of Indian authors. It has also been abandoned

in the chapters on nādīśāstra (pulse-lore), pākaśāstra (cookery and the preparation of pākas) and rasaśāstra, where holding on to it appeared to have more disadvantages than merits. The successive order of the chapters is chronological whenever possible.

I am fully aware of the inconveniences resulting from my scheme, which will only be remedied by the publication of an index volume.

As far as my linguistic competence permits, the secondary literature has been digested or referred to, in particular in the annotations.

This history of Indian medical literature is, self-evidently, one of many of the histories that could have been written. The fact that it is by one single author, who constantly had the same point of departure in mind, explains a leading feature. The unremitting emphasis is on nosology, with the Mādhavanidāna, the most authoritative textbook in this field, as the fixed point of orientation. My training in both medicine and Indology has contributed to the decision to choose this perspective, and has, in general, greatly facilitated the realization of the aims of my project.

Some of the principles of my method and of the structure of this survey may be in need of clarification.

The two parts of volume I are devoted to four basic texts, their commentaries, and the authorities associated with these texts. The central position of these elaborate treatises and their influence on the later literature, which can therefore be designated as post-classical, made it not only unavoidable, but desirable, even necessary, to allot much space to their description, which, moreover, gave me the opportunity to refer to a large part of the secondary literature on many basic terms and concepts, and to provide cross-references. The four classical works are presented in the form of summaries, rather dissimilar from the synopses available for the Carakasaṃhitā and Suśrutasaṃhitā.

The annotations give references to the Indological, medical-historical and recent āyurvedic literature in order to supply readers from diverse backgrounds with information. I recognize the drawbacks of this laborious procedure, but, after weighing up the pros and cons, the advantages for readers seemed to outweigh the snags. In general, I aimed at placing Indian medicine within a broader cultural and historical context.

The post-classical literature covers the two parts of volume II. Although prominence has been given to well-known treatises, I sincerely attempted to maintain impartiality by faithfully describing a large number of texts regardless of their impact or age, in the firm conviction that too many have been disregarded or taken no notice of, and with the objective of furthering the study of historical developments, which are, whether large or small scale, influential or marginal, always of interest and worthy to be given fair treatment.

Some of my conclusions regarding authorship and date of classical works will be seen to conflict with cherished Indian traditions. I acknowledge this disrespect for tradition, born out of respect for the independence of scientific inquiry.

Finally, a few technical points have to be made.

Sanskrit words have been hyphenated according to the akṣaras (syllables) of the Nāgarī script.

The source of botanical names, if left unmentioned, is the Wealth of India: Raw ma-

terials, volumes I-XI (1948-1976) and its revised edition, volumes I-III (1985-1992).

The frontispieces are taken from the Hortus Indicus Malabaricus (1678-1693) of Henricus Adrianus van Rheede van Draakenstein, as a tribute and mark of honour to this illustrious countryman, who decreases to be remembered by the author of a Dutch

this illustrious countryman, who deserves to be remembered by the author of a Dutch work on Indian medicine.

The responsibility for the errors and deficiencies of this work will be entirely mine. I am aware of some of its shortcomings. Reviewers, colleagues and friends are invited to identify weaknesses and blind spots outside the field of my consciousness. Their remarks will be appreciated by an author, who, as a psychiatrist and psychotherapist, sets great store by the salutariness of constructive criticism.

Part 1 Carakasaṃhitā

Chapter 1 Sütrasthäna¹

Chapter one, ² called dīrghaṃjīvitīya, is the most heterogeneous of the whole saṃhitā in its composition.

Verses 3-40 describe the descent of the divine āyurveda to earth. The āyurveda was transmitted by Brahınā³ to Prajāpati,⁴ by Prajāpati to the Aśvins, by the Aśvins to Indra.⁵

A large group of sages, ⁶ assembled on the slopes of the foothills of the Himālayas, sends Bharadvāja as their delegate to the abode of Indra, ⁷ in order to ask this god for help, because diseases had cropped up among the living beings, creating thus obstacles to a religious life. ⁸ Bharadvāja receives the āyurveda and passes his knowledge on to the other sages, among whom is Ātreya Punarvasu, who teaches the science in his turn to his six disciples. These six pupils, Agniveśa, Bhela, Jatūkarņa, Parāśara, Hārīta and Kṣārapāṇi, put Ātreya's teaching down in writing. Agniveśa is mentioned as the one who was the first to compose a medical treatise based on Ātreya's exposition. ⁹

Stories about the transmission of the āyurveda from divinities to human sages, similar to those found in the Carakasaṃhitā or of a more or less different character, occur in the Suśrutasaṃhitā, the works attributed to Vāgbhaṭa, the Kāśyapasaṃhitā, Hārītasaṃhitā, Ugrāditya's Kalyāṇakāraka, Bhāvamiśra's Bhāvaprakāśa, and the Bṛhannighaṇṭuratnākara. ¹⁰ An independent tradition regarding the origin of āyurveda is presented by the Brahmavaivartapurāṇa. ¹¹

The Tibetan medical tradition developed its own version of the divine origin of the science. 12

The large assembly of sages is a characteristic feature of the *Carakasamhitā*, ¹³ although not unique. A similar group met at the court of king Romapāda in order to be instructed in hastyāyurveda. ¹⁴ Part I of the Bower MS tells about a group of sages in the Himālayas who are interested in medicinal plants.

Parallels occur in non-medical treatises. ¹⁵ A long list, with partly the same names as those of the *Carakasaṃhitā*, is found in the *Bhāratī yanāṭyaśāstra*. ¹⁶ Meetings of numerous sages are also described in the *Mahābhārata*, ¹⁷ *Rāmāyaṇa* ¹⁸ and *Bhāgavatapurāna*. ¹⁹

The sheer length of the list of sages (ṛṣi)²⁰ in the Carakasaṃhitā made Cakrapāṇidatta comment that it serves to remove sins (pāpakṣaya) and to show that the āyurveda is worthy of being honoured by great minds (mahāpuruṣa). The motley character of the group was noticed by Cakra; he divides the sages into yāyāvaras, śālīnas²¹ and ayonijas (not born from a womb),²² and into four categories: ṛṣika,

rsiputra, devarsi and maharsi. ²³ Later scholars also expressed their opinion on the remarkable heterogeneity of the assembled sages, who, in the Indian tradition, belong to different yugas, which precludes their meeting together. ²⁴

In my opinion, Caraka's list of sages, many of whom are known from Vedic literature, may have been inserted in order to stress the connection between ayurveda and the Vedic tradition, the orthodoxy of its teachings, and its association with the brahmanas.

Chapter one continues, after this introductory part, with the actual subject-matter of the treatise, in discussing the terms āyus²⁵ and āyurveda (1.41~43).²⁶

The next series of verses, 44–52, deal with Vaiśeṣika concepts and their application in āyurveda, ²⁷ a subject not discussed in the *Bhelasaṃhitā*, *Suśrutasaṃhitā* and the works ascribed to Vāgbhata.

S. Dasgupta claimed ze that there are important differences between some concepts as defined in the Carakasamhitā and the corresponding ones in Vaiseşika texts. In his view, the terms sāmānya and viseṣa in the Carakasamhitā have a significance quite different from what they have in the Vaiseṣikasūtras; he asserted that, in the Carakasamhitā, the word sāmānya, which denotes a class in the Vaiseṣika system, 29 means concrete things which have similar constituents or characteristics, while viseṣa, denoting ultimate particulars in the Vaiseṣika system, means concrete things which have dissimilar constituents or characteristics. This judgment has been refuted by A. Comba, 30 who argues that the use of the words sāmānya and viseṣa in their literal meaning is not foreign to the Vaiseṣika tradition at all.

The most important passages of the Carakasaṃhitā on the universals (sāmānya) and particulars (viśeṣa) are: Sū.1.28cd-29ab, which lists the six categories of Vaiśeṣika in the following order: sāmānya, viśeṣa, guṇa, dravya, karman, and samavāya; 1.44, which describes the causality of sāmānya and viśeṣa; 1.45, which defines these concepts through characteristics useful in medicine.

The first of these passages enumerates the categories in an unusual order; sāmānya and viśeṣa are the fourth, respectively fifth category in Vaiśeṣika texts; both terms are used in their technical, not their literal, meaning on this occasion. The other passages employ the term sāmānya in its technical sense, i.e., it denotes the category, whereas the term viśeṣa does not denote the category of this name, the ultimate particular, but the universal-particular (sāmānyaviśeṣa) in its differentiating aspect; the ultimate particulars (antyaviśeṣa) are regarded as useless in medical theory. ³¹

A. Comba concluded in her study that the Carakasamhitā defines the universals and particulars differently from the Vaiśeṣikasūtras. By means of metonymies and ellipses, the Carakasamhitā points out the gnoseological function, at once unifying and differentiating, of the universal-particulars, rather than deducing their existence.

This led her to think that the *Carakasaṃhitā* takes for granted the demonstration of the universals in Kaṇāda's *Vaiśeṣikasūtras*, which implies that the latter are not dependent on speculations developed in medical circles, contrary to the opinions on this issue put forward by D. Chattopadhyaya.³²

S. Dasgupta³³ remarked that the *Carakasamhitā* seems to take its start from the Vaisesika. He expressed as his view³⁴ that Caraka's definition of sāmānya and visesa shows that they were then not yet counted as separate categories, as in the later

Vaiśeşika; Caraka's sūtras were in his opinion probably written at a time when the Vaiśeşika doctrines were undergoing changes, and compendia were beginning to appear; he supposed that a compendium like the *Bhāṣāpariccheda* might have been available to the author. ³⁵

Verses 46-47 describe the pums (= puruşa), who is the subject (adhikarana) of the science of life, as a combination (saṃyoga) of three constituents (tridanda): sattva (= manas), ātman and body (śarīra).

Verse 48 is concerned with the category dravya (substance),³⁷ in agreement with Vaiśeşika doctrine, the substances are nine in number: the five mahābhūtas,³⁸ ātman, manas, time (kāla) and space (diś); this enumeration of what are called the kāraṇadravyas is followed by an ardhaśloka on the kāryadravyas, divided into sentient (cetana) and insentient (acetana).³⁹

The categories guṇa and karman are dealt with in verse 49. The guṇas, forty-one in number, are divided into three groups by Cakrapāṇidatta in his commentary: vaiśeṣika-, sāmānya- and ātmaguṇas. The vaiśeṣikaguṇas are the objects (artha) of the senses (smell, taste, etc.); this agrees with Vaiśeṣika thought. 40 The qualities referred to as gurvādayaḥ in Ca.Sū.1.49 are sāmānyaguṇas; they consist of ten pairs of opposites, listed at Ca.Sū.25.36 and Śā.6.10, and by Cakra ad Ca.Sū.1.49; guru (heavy) and light (laghu), śīta (cold) and uṣṇa (hot), snigdha (oleaginous) and rūkṣa (dry), manda (sluggish) and tūkṣṇa (sharp), sthira (solid) and sara (flowing), mrdu (soft) and kaṭhina (hard), viśada (clear) and picchila (mucilaginous), ślakṣṇa (smooth) and khara (rough), sthūla (gross) and sūkṣma 41 (subtle), sāndra (viscid) and drava (liquid); 42 a similar list is not known from Vaiśeṣika literature. Buddhi and the list ending with prayatna, referred to in Ca.Sū.1.49, constitute the ātmaguṇaṣ, a subject discussed in Śārīrasthāna 1.43 A second series of sāmānyaguṇas is alluded to as parādayaḥ; the items of this list are enumerated at Ca.Sū.26.29–30ab. 44 Karman is defined as movement (cestita), of the nature of effort, etc. (prayatnādi).

Samavāya is defined in verse 50 as the relation of inseparable inherence (apṛthagbhāva), as in the case of earth and other substances and their qualities; this relation is said to be eternal (nitya). Cakra describes it, in agreement with Praśastapāda's commentary on the *Vaiśeṣikasūtras*, as the invariable co-existence (ayutasiddhi) of substrate (ādhāra) and that which exists in it (ādhārya). 45

Verse 51 defines dravya (substance) as that in which inhere karman and guṇa and which is a samavāyikāraṇa (inherent cause). This definition is qualified by Cakrapāṇi, because karman does not inhere in the mahābhūtas. ⁴⁶ The same verse defines guṇa as being inherent (samavāyin) (in a substance), devoid of action (niśceṣṭa), ⁴⁷ and causative (kārana). ⁴⁸

Verse 52 describes karman, in conformity with Vaiseşika views, as inherent in substance, causative of conjunction (sarnyoga) and disjunction (vibhāga), and independent of other factors (nānyad apeksate). ⁴⁹

Chapter one then turns to concepts which are important in medical theory. Equilibrium of the dhātus (constituent elements of the body) is the object of the medical science, to be achieved by appropriate measures (kriyā) (1.53).

The threefold cause of bodily and mental disorders is the improper (mithyāyoga), ⁵⁰ deficient (ayoga) and excessive (atiyoga) contact with time, buddhi and the objects of the senses (1.54), a subject more thoroughly discussed in Ca.Sū.11.

The body and the sattva⁵¹ are the seats of both diseased and healthy states of man; a proper contact (samayoga) with the aforesaid factors is the cause of well-being (1.55).

Verse 56 characterizes the ātman.

Verse 57 enumerates the three bodily doşas: ⁵² vāyu, pitta and kapha, and the two mental (mānasa) doṣas: rajas and tamas. ⁵³ Verse 58 declares that the bodily doṣas are appeased by remedial measures (auṣadha), ⁵⁴ which are of two types: daivavyapāśraya and yuktivyapāśraya; ⁵⁵ the mental doṣas are pacified by means of jñāna, vijñāna, ⁵⁶ dhairya, smrti and samādhi.

The qualities of the dosas and, by implication, the qualities of medicinal substances alleviating excited dosas, are dealt with in verses 59–61. 57

The general principle on which the treatment of curable diseases is based is sketched in verses 62–63. Verses 64–66 are about the tastes, their relationships with the mahābhūtas and those with the dosas.

Verse 67 divides medicinal substances into three groups: doṣapraśamana, dhā-tupradūṣaṇa and svasthavṛtti(kara). ⁵⁸ Verses 68-74ab ⁵⁹ divide drugs, according to their source, into jāṇgama, bhauma (or pārthiva) and audbhida, i.e., of animal, inorganic and vegetable origin; ⁶⁰ many substances and clusters of substances belonging to these groups are enumerated. ⁶¹

Verses 74cd-119 describe sixteen plants with useful roots (mūlinī; 1.77-80), nineteen plants with useful fruits (phalinī; 1.81-86ab), ⁶² four fatty substances (mahāsneha; 1.86cd-88ab), five salts (1.88cd-92ab), ⁶³ eight kinds of urine ⁶⁴ and milk (1.92cd-113), ⁶⁵ and six trees ⁶⁶ used in evacuation (śodhana; 1.114-118). ⁶⁷

Verses 120–135 state that a good physician should not only be acquainted with the names and characteristics of drugs, but in particular with their proper administration, on which therapeutic success depends.

Verses 136-140 summarize the contents of the chapter. 68

Chapter two, called apāmārgataṇḍulīya, ⁶⁹ deals with drugs useful in vamana (emesis) and virecana (purgation) (2.1–16); both treatments, which, taken together, are identical with the śodhana (evacuation) of Sū.1.76, form part of the complex procedure called pañcakarman, elaborately described in the Siddhisthāna. ⁷⁰

Many of the substances of this part of chapter two are already mentioned in Ca.Sū.1.74cd-119.

The medicinal plant apāmārga is the first one appearing in chapter two because it is the main drug used in evacuation of the head. 71 Madana (2.7) is the main drug among the emetics, 72 trivṛtā (2.9) among the purgatives. 73

The second part of chapter two describes twenty-eight medicinal gruels (yavāgū; 2.17–34), ⁷⁴ employed in the dietetic regimen after a course of pañcakarman, especially if improperly carried out. ⁷⁵

Chapter three, called āragvadhīya,76 describes thirty-two77 preparations called cū-

1 Sūtrasthāna 13

rnapradeha, ⁷⁸ to be used for the purpose of external purification after proper evacuation of the patient. ⁸⁰

A cūrņapradeha is a powdered drug (cūrņa), sprinkled over a spot already smeared with an oil, and rubbed for some time. ⁸¹

Chapter four, called sadvirecanaśatāśritīya, 82 discusses evacuative (virecana) preparations. 83

Six hundred of these preparations will be dealt with briefly in this chapter, to be described more fully later, in the Kalpopanişad (= Kalpasthāna). 84 The numbers of the preparations to be described in the twelve chapters of the Kalpasthāna are announced.

The milky sap (kṣīra), roots, bark, leaves, flowers and fruits of plants are employed (4.5) in the preparations, which are henceforth referred to as kaṣāyas in this chapter. The salt taste is unsuitable, the other five tastes are suitable in a kaṣāya (4.6).

Five types of kaṣāya are distinguished, arranged according to their decrease in strength: svarasa (freshly expressed juice), kalka (paste), śṛta (decoction), śīta (cold infusion), and phāṇṭa (hot infusion). ⁸⁵ The definitions of these types are given in some interpolated verses. ⁸⁶

Ten large groups (varga) of mahākaṣāyas are distinguished, subdivided into fifty smaller groups with specific actions; ⁸⁷ each of these smaller groups comprises ten items, consisting of plants or plant products. ⁸⁸ One and the same plant may be found in more than one of these groups of ten. ⁸⁹

The groups begin with medicinal substances which are jīvanīya (vitalizing) and end with those which are vayaḥsthāpana (preserving youthful vigour), thus stressing the rasāyana aspect of āyurveda. The arrangement, names and actions of the fifty groups are remarkable in several respects and suggest that Sū.4 may represent an old part of the Carakasamhitā.

Substances called virecana in a broad sense are said to be the subject of the chapter, but, actually, a very small part of the groups of ten drugs belongs to this category. ⁹⁰ Many groups consist of specifics against particular disorders, ⁹¹ drugs acting on particular regions of the body ⁹² or particular bodily constituents, ⁹³ drugs with particular general effects, ⁹⁴ etc. Some groups are specifically active against disorders not described as distinct diseases in the *Carakasamhitā*. ⁹⁵

Chapter five, called mātrāśitīya, 96 is concerned with daily regimen. 97

The subjects are: the suitable quantities of light and heavy articles of food, which are dependent on the power of one's digestion (agnibala) (5.3–13); ⁹⁸ the application of collyria (anjana) (5.14–20ab); ⁹⁹ smoking (dhūmapāna) as a daily routine ¹⁰⁰ and for therapeutic purposes (5.20cd–56ab); ¹⁰¹ the preparation of anutaila and its use as a snuff (5.56cd–71ab); ¹⁰² teeth-cleaning (dantapavana; 5.71cd–74ab); ¹⁰³ tongue-scraping (jihvānirlekhana; 5.74cd–76ab); ¹⁰⁴ keeping fragrant substances in the mouth (5.76cd–77); ¹⁰⁵ the use of gargles (gaṇḍūsa; 5.78–80); ¹⁰⁶ rubbing the head with oil (mūrdhatailaniṣevaṇa; 5.81–83); ¹⁰⁷ the use of eardrops (karṇatarpaṇa; 5.84); ¹⁰⁸ massage of the body and the feet with oil (snehābhyanga; 5.85–92); ¹⁰⁹ rubbing the body all over (śarīraparimārjana; 5.93); bathing (snāna; 5.94); ¹¹⁰ wearing

clean clothes (5.95); the uses of fragrant substances, garlands, gems and ornaments (5.96–97); ¹¹¹ hygiene of feet and excretory orifices (5.98); ¹¹² hair- and nail-cutting (5.99); ¹¹³ the use of footwear, ¹¹⁴ umbrella, ¹¹⁵ and stick (5.100–102). ¹¹⁶

Chapter six, called tasyāśitīya, discusses physiological changes during the seasons and the recommended seasonal regimen (rtucaryā). 117

The subjects are: the importance of seasonal regimen (6.3); the year is divided into six seasons; the period in which the sun courses northwards (udagayana), known as ādāna, consists of the seasons beginning with śiśira (the cool season) and ending with grīṣma (summer); the period in which the sun courses southwards, called visarga, consists of the seasons beginning with varṣāḥ (the rainy season) and ending with hemanta (winter) (6.4); ¹¹⁸ the main characteristics of visarga and ādāna ¹¹⁹ (6.5–8); the characteristics of hemanta and the regimen to be observed (6.9–18); the characteristics and regimen pertaining to śiśira (6.19–21), vasanta (spring) (6.22–26), grīṣma (6.27–32), varṣāḥ (6.33–40), and śarad (autumn) (6.41–48); the definition of okasātmya (one's adiustment as to diet and behaviour to the region of residence) (6.49–50).

Chapter seven, called navegāndhāraṇīya, 120 is concerned with the unwholesome effects of the suppression of natural urges (vegadhāraṇa) 121 and other subjects.

The thirteen urges not to be suppressed are those relating to urination, defecation, ejaculation, passing flatus, vomiting, sneezing, eructation, yawing, hunger, thirst, shedding tears, sleep, and heavy breathing caused by exercise. The symptoms resulting from suppression and the treatment of these syndromes are described (7.3–25). 122

The next series of verses enumerate urges that should be suppressed as being morally condemnable (7.26–30). ¹²³

Some verses are devoted to the proper use of physical exercise (vyāyāma; 7.31–33). ¹²⁴ Excessive indulgence in physical exercise, laughing, talking, travelling, sexual intercourse and waking by night is warned against (7.34–35). Those who should avoid physical exercise are described (two additional verses). ¹²⁵ The proper way to get out of bad habits is described (7.36–38). ¹²⁶

The remaining subjects dealt with are: the constitutions (prakṛti; 7.39–41); ¹²⁷ bodily orifices and channels obstructed by excreta and secretions (7.42–43); general causes of endogenous (nija) and exogenous (āgantu) diseases and their treatment (7.44–55); ¹²⁸ persons with whom one should not associate and persons whose company is to be recommended (7.56–59); rules about the intake of thick sour milk (dadhi; 7.61–62).

Chapter eight, called indriyopakramaṇīya, ¹²⁹ gives an account of the five sensory faculties ¹³⁰ and mind ¹³¹ (8.3–17), ¹³² followed by rules of conduct, which refer to numerous Hindu practices (8.18–29). ¹³³

Among the persons to be shunned (8.19) is a bhrūṇahan, explained by Cakra as a garbhaghātaka, i.e., someone who kills an embryo or foetus, thus inducing an abortion. ¹³⁴ A Vedic man**r**a is quoted (8.28). ¹³⁵ Friendship (maitrī) and compassion (kārunya) are among the recommended virtues (8.29). ¹³⁶

Chapter nine, called khuddākacatuspāda, forms the short exposition on the four 'pillars of treatment': the physician, the drug, the attendant and the patient. ¹³⁷

Chapter ten, called mahācatuṣpāda, ¹³⁸ is, to a certain extent, a continuation of chapter nine.

The 'four pillars' are referred to at the beginning of the chapter. Punarvasu Ātreya is reported to declare that rational (yuktiyukta) treatment leads to freedom from disease. He is contradicted by Maitreya, who states that people recover or die from disease, irrespective of treatment. 139 Ātreya replies that successful treatment depends on correct knowledge concerning curable (sādhya) and incurable (asādhya) diseases (10.3–8). 140

Curable diseases are divided into two categories: easily curable (sukhasādhya) and curable with difficulty (kṛcchrasādhya). Curable diseases are also of three grades (alpa, madhya, utlṛṣṭa). Incurable diseases are either amenable to palliative treatment (yāpya) or intractable (anupakrama); grades are not distinguished. These categories are characterized (10.9–20). ¹⁴¹

Chapter eleven, called tisraiṣaṇīya, 142 discusses the three desires (eṣaṇā): 143 the desire for a long life (prāṇaiṣaṇā), for wealth (dhanaiṣaṇā) and for the other world (paralokaiṣaṇā). 144

The existence of the other world and of rebirth (punarbhava) ¹⁴⁵ is defended against the views of opponents ¹⁴⁶ and established through the four means of examination (parīkṣā): ¹⁴⁷ āptopadeśa (authoritative statement), pratyakṣa (perception), anumāna (inference) ¹⁴⁸ and yukti (reasoning).

The fourfold examination is described and applied to the problem whether or not rebirth is a reality. The result of this investigation is positive, which justifies the desire for the other world (11.3-33).¹⁴⁹

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to threefold classifications: the three subordinate supports (of life) (upastambha), consisting of diet (āhāra), sleep (svapna) and celibacy (brahmacarya); 150 the three types of strength (bala); dependent on one's constitution (sahaja), on time (kālaja) and one's way of life (yuktikrta); the three basic causes (ayatana) of diseases: unsuitable contact of the senses with their objects (asātmyendriyārthasamyoga), behaviour based on errors in judgment (pra jūāparādha), ¹⁵¹ and abnormal seasonal variations (parināma); the three categories of diseases: endogenous (nija), exogenous (agantu) 152 and mental (manasa); the three pathways (mārga) of diseases: 153 the branches (śākhā), the vulnerable points (marman) together with the joints, and the viscera (kostha), also called the peripheral (bahya), middlemost (madhyama) and central (ābhyantara) pathway; 154 the three types of physicians: fraudulent ones (chadmacara), those imitating a physician's behaviour (siddhasādhita, pratirūpaka), and the genuine ones; the three types of treatment; spiritual (daivayyapāśraya), rational (yuktivyapāśraya) and psychological (sattvāvajaya); 155 the three types of somatic therapy: internal purification (antahparimārjana), external purification (bahihparimār jana) 156 and surgical intervention (sastrapranidhāna) 157 (11.34–55).

Surgical interventions mentioned are: chedana (excision), bhedana (incision), vyadhana (puncturing), dāraṇa (rupturing), lekhana (scraping), utpāṭana, 158 pracchana



(scarification), sīvana (suturing), eṣaṇa (probing), kṣāra (the application of caustics), and jalaukas (the application of leeches) (11.55), 159

Chapter twelve, called vātakalākalīya, ¹⁶⁰ is in the form of a conversation among a group of sages ¹⁶¹ on the merits and demerits of vāta as a cosmical element ¹⁶² and a constituent of the body. ¹⁶³

The questions to be discussed by the sages are: the qualities of vāta, the factors leading to its excitement and its pacification, the way in which these factors affect the incorporeal (asaṃgḥātavant) and unsteady (anavasthita) ¹⁶⁴ vāta, and the actions of vāta outside and inside the body.

Kuśa Sāṇıkṛtyāyana enumerates the six qualities of vāta. 165 Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja agrees and adds that vāta is excited by substances and actions with similar qualities. Kānkāyana, the physician from Bāhlīka, explains that pacification of excited vāta is brought about by factors with opposite qualities. Badiśa Dhāmārgava discusses the way in which vāta is affected by these aggravating and alleviating factors. Vāryovida talks about the normal functions of vāta, the afflictions it brings about in the human organism when excited, and the normal and abnormal actions of vāta in the external world, adding observations on Vāyu as a deity, who is identical with Yama, Prajāpati, Aditi, Viśvakarman and Viṣṇu. Marīci asks Vāryovida how this knowledge can be applied to medical practice. Vāryovida replies that a correct understanding of the normal and abnormal actions of vāyu enables a physician to give sound advice to his patients. Marīci objects that pitta is the main agent in health and disease. Kāpya brings forward that kapha is mainly responsible for normal and abnormal states of the human organism.

At the end of this discussion, Punarvasu Ātreya declares that all three dhātus, vā-yu, pitta and kapha, should duly be taken into consideration in the assessment of health and disease.

Chapter thirteen, on sneha, ¹⁶⁶ is devoted to Punarvasu's answers to Agniveśa's queries about oleation therapy (sneha), ¹⁶⁷ a type of treatment related to pañcakarman, ¹⁶⁸ and especially important in counteracting disturbances of vāta.

Punarvasustates that the fatty substances (sneha) used in medicine are of vegetable and animal origin. He gives a list of these substances, explains their properties and actions, the proper time of their administration, and mentions the anupānas to be taken (13.9–22). 169

Twenty-four varieties of preparations containing a sneha (pravicāraṇā) are enumerated (13.23–25). The total number offatty preparations is sixty-four (13.27–28). ¹⁷⁰ Patients who require a high, medium or low dose of a sneha are mentioned (13.29–40). ¹⁷¹ Patients preferentially to be treated with ghee, oil, muscle fat or bone-marrow are discussed (13.41–50). ¹⁷²

The next subjects are: the maximum and minimum duration of a treatment with sneha (13.51); ¹⁷³ patients suitable and unsuitable to sneha (13.52–56); ¹⁷⁴ signs of defective, proper and excessive treatment (13.57–59); ¹⁷⁵ preparatory measures (13.60–61); rules to be observed during treatment (13.62–64); ¹⁷⁶ differences in

the course of treatment between persons with soft (mṛdukoṣṭha) and hard bowels (krūrakoṣṭha) (13.65–69); ¹⁷⁷ complications (vyāpatti; 13.70–79); ¹⁷⁸ after-treatment (13.80–81); fatty preparations for patients to whom the usual ones are not suitable (13.82–95); ¹⁷⁹ the absorption of a sneha (13.96–97); addition of salt to a sneha enhances its action (13.98). ¹⁸⁰

Sudation (sveda) should follow the treatment with a sneha; the next step consists of purification (samśodhana) (13.99). 181

Chapter fourteen is concerned with sudation (sveda), 182 useful in disorders caused by vāta and kapha.

General rules are dealt with first (14.3–12),¹⁸³ followed by the signs of proper treatment and over-sudation (14.13–15).¹⁸⁴ Indications and contra-indications are discussed (14.16–24).¹⁸⁵

The materials used in pineasveda (bolus sudation) ¹⁸⁶ are enumerated; they can also be employed in prastarasveda (14.25–27). ¹⁸⁷ The next verses are about the materials for jentākasveda (14.28), ¹⁸⁸ nādīsveda (14.29–33), sudation in a tub (koṣṭha; 14.34), ¹⁸⁹ and upanāhasveda (14.35–37), ¹⁹⁰

Thirteen types of sudation which require heating by fire ¹⁹¹ are described: saṃ-kara- (bolus sudation; ¹⁹² 14.41), ¹⁹³ prastara- (sudation on a layer of suitable material; 14.42), ¹⁹⁴ nādī- (sudation by means of a tube; 14.43), ¹⁹⁵ pariṣeka- (sudation by means of showers; 14.44), ¹⁹⁶ avagāha(na) (sudation in a bath; 14.45), ¹⁹⁷ jentāka- (sudation in a specially constructed room, resembling a sauna; 14.46), ¹⁹⁸ aśmaghana- (sudation on a heated stone-slab; 14.47–50a), ¹⁹⁹ karṣū- (sudation over a trench; 14.50b–51), kutī- (sudation in a cottage constructed for the purpose; 14.52–54), ²⁰⁰ bhū- (sudation of the same type as aśmaghana, but the patient lies on a heated layer of earth; 14.55), kumbhī- (sudation by means of a half-buried pitcher, filled with heated iron balls or stones; 14.56–58), kūpa- (sudation over a pit filled with heated dung; 14.59–60), and holākasveda (sudation over a dhītīkā, i.e., a heap of heated dung; 14.61–63). ²⁰¹

The ten types of sudation without the application of fire consist of physical exercise (vyāyāma), uṣṇasadana (residing in a non-heated warm room), warm clothing (guruprāvaraṇa), hunger, drinking of large quantities of water, fear, anger, poultices (upanāha), wrestling (āhava), and exposure to the sun (ātapa) (14.64–65ab). ²⁰²

Sudation is of six general types: involving the application of fire or not involving it, applied to the whole body or part of it, oleaginous (against vāta disorders) or dry (against kapha disorders) (14.65cd-66). The chapter ends with rules for after-treatment (14.67). ²⁰⁴

Chapter fifteen, called upakalpan $\bar{1}$ ya, on the equipment of a physician, describes a kind of infirmary, 205 with its personnel 206 and equipment, 207 suitable to the treatment of persons of high social status 208 with a full course of pa $\bar{1}$ cakarman. Vamana (emesis) and virecana (purgation) 209 are dealt with in detail. 210

Chapter sixteen, called cikitsāprābhtūya, ²¹¹ about the functions of a physician fully equipped for treatment (cikitsāprābhrta), is a continuation of chapter fifteen.

The signs of proper, inadequate and excessive treatment with emetics and purgatives are described (16.5–11), ²¹² followed by the symptoms of someone full of doşas who is in need of evacuative therapy (16.13–16). The merits of evacuative measures are dealt with (16.17–21)²¹³ and the treatment of disorders due to their improper application (16.22–26). ²¹⁴

In reply to a question put by Agniveśa, Ātreya expounds that the function of a physician consists of the restoration of the equilibrium of the dhātus (16.29–38).²¹⁵

Chapter seventeen, called kiyantaḥśirasīya, deals with a number of different subjects.

The diseases of the head (śiroroga) are discussed first because the head is the chief part (uttamānga) of the body, being the place where the vital breaths (prāṇāḥ) and the senses are located (17.12). A long series of disorders affecting the head is enumerated (17.13–14). The śirorogas in a restricted sense are five in number; they are caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all the three doṣas together, and parasites (krimi) (17.15–29). The same five types of heart disease (hrdroga) are described (17.30–40). The same five types of heart disease (hrdroga) are described (17.30–40).

The total number of disturbances of the dosas, with increase or decrease of one, two or three of them, and with combinations of increase and decrease, is sixty-two. These disturbances are classified into groups and their signs described (17.41–62).²¹⁹

The signs of deficiency of the seven elements of the body (dhātu), ²²⁰ the seven impurities (mala)²²¹ and ojas ²²² are listed; ²²³ ojas is characterized, followed by the causes of its decrease²²⁴ (17.63–77). ²²⁵

The causes of madhumeha are discussed; the seven kinds of boils (piḍakā), which arise when this disease is neglected, are described. ²²⁶ Their names are: śarāvikā, kacchapikā, ²²⁷ jālinī, ²²⁸ sarṣapī, alajī, ²²⁹ vinatā and vidradhi (17.78–89). ²³⁰

A more elaborate account of vidradhi (an abscess) follows. This disorder is of two types: external (bāhyā) and internal (ābhyantarī). ²³¹ The causes of the internal type, the symptoms of its four doṣic varieties, the symptoms dependent on its location, and the curability or incurability of the varieties are dealt with (17.90–103). ²³² The curability and incurability of all seven types of piḍakā is taken notice of (17.105–107). ²³³

Other boils, independent of prameha, are also acknowledged (17.104 and 108-111). 234

The movement (gati) of the doṣas is of three types: (1) decrease (kṣaya), constancy (sthāna) and increase (vṛddhi); (2) upward, downward and sideways movement; (3) location in the viscera, the branches of the body, and the vulnerable points, together with the joints (17.112–113).²³⁵ A fourth type, dependent on the seasons, is added; it consists of accumulation (caya), excitement (prakopa) and pacification (praśama); ²³⁶ two varieties are distinguished: normal (prākrtī) and abnormal (vaikṛtī) (17.114–118).

Chapter eighteen, called triśothīya, gives an account of swellings (śotha). 237

These disorders are caused by vāta, pitta and kapha; they are either endogenous (nija) or exogenous (āgantu) (18.3). The aetiology and symptomatology of these types are described (18.4–15). Varieties difficult to be cured are dealt with (18.16–17). The complications are enumerated (18.18).²³⁸

A long series of local swellings is described: upajihvikā (18.19), 239 galašuņdikā

 $(18.20),^{240}$ galagaṇḍa $(18.21),^{241}$ galagraha $(18.22),^{242}$ visarpa $(18.23),^{243}$ pidakā $(18.24),^{244}$ tilaka $(18.25),^{245}$ piplu $(18.25),^{246}$ vyanga $(18.25),^{247}$ nīlikā $(18.25),^{248}$ śaṅkhaka $(18.26),^{249}$ karṇamūlaśotha $(18.27),^{250}$ phlīhābhivṛddhi $(18.28),^{251}$ gulma $(18.29),^{252}$ vṛddhi $(18.30),^{253}$ udara $(18.31),^{254}$ ānāha $(18.32),^{255}$ adhimāṛṇṣa $(18.33),^{256}$ arbuda $(18.33),^{257}$ and rohirī $(18.34-36),^{258}$

The classification of diseases is discussed again. Mild (mṛdu) and severe (dāruṇa) diseases are distinguished (18.37–47). ²⁵⁹

Some functions of vāta, pitta and kapha are enumerated (18.48-53).

Chapter nineteen, called aṣṭodarīya, ²⁶⁰ begins with enumerations of diseases of which there are eight to two varieties, one type only, or twenty varieties. The total number of these groups is forty-eight (19.3). The varieties belonging to each group are listed (19.4).

There are eight varieties of udara, ²⁶¹ mūtrāghāta, ²⁶² kṣīradoṣa, ²⁶³ retodoṣa (defects of semen), ²⁶⁴ seven varieties of kuṣṭha, ²⁶⁵ pidakā, ²⁶⁶ visarpa, ²⁶⁷ six varieties of atīsāra ²⁶⁸ and udāvarta, ²⁶⁹ five varieties of gulma, ²⁷⁰ plīhadoṣa, ²⁷¹ kāṣa, ²⁷² śvāṣa, ²⁷³ hikkā, ²⁷⁴ tṛṣṇā, ²⁷⁵ chardi, ²⁷⁶ bhaktānaśana, ²⁷⁷ śiroroga, ²⁷⁸ hṛdroga, ²⁷⁹ pāṇḍuroga, ²⁸⁰ unmāda, ²⁸¹ four varieties of apasmāra, ²⁸² akṣiroga, ²⁸³ kaṛṇaroga, ²⁸⁴ pratiśyāya, ²⁸⁵ mukharoga, ²⁸⁶ grahaṇīdoṣa, ²⁸⁷ mada, ²⁸⁸ mūrchāya, ²⁸⁹ śoṣa, ²⁹⁰ klaibya, ²⁹¹ three varieties of śoṭha, ²⁹² kilāṣa, ²⁹³ raktapitta, ²⁹⁴ two varieties of jvara, ²⁹⁵ vraṇa, ²⁹⁶ āyāma, ²⁹⁷ grdhrasī, ²⁹⁸ kāmalā, ²⁹⁹ āma, ³⁰⁰ vātarakta, ³⁰¹ arśas. ³⁰²

Diseases of one type only are ūrustambha, 303 saṃnyāsa, 304 and the major disease (mahāgada) called atattvābhiniveśa. 305

Parasites (krimi) are of twenty kinds. 306 Twenty varieties of prameha 307 and yonivyāpad 308 are enumerated.

Some diseases are not mentioned in the list; aśmarī, kṣatakṣīṇa and madātyaya are absent. 209 Remarkable is the classification of āyāma and gṛdhrasī, separate from the vāta diseases to which they belong, and of kāmalā, separate from pāṇḍuroga.

The chapter ends with statements stressing that all the endogenous (nija) disorders arise from the three doṣas (19.5–6) and, finally, a verse on the connections between endogenous and exogenous disorders (19.7).

Chapter twenty, called mahāroga, begins with an exposition on endogenous and exogenous diseases (20.3–7), ³¹⁰ followed by the main seats of the dosas (20.8).

The larger part of the chapter is devoted to the nānātmaja disorders, ³¹¹ which are contrasted with those called sāmānyaja, ³¹² discussed in the preceding chapter. The nānātmaja disorders of vāta, pitta and kapha are enumerated, together with signs enabling a physician to determine which doṣa is disturbed in a particular disorder. The general management of disturbances of vāta, pitta and kapha is also dealt with.

The nānātmaja disorders of vāta are eighty in number: ³¹³ nakhabheda (cracking of nails), ³¹⁴ vipādikā, ³¹⁵ pādaśūla (piercing pain in the feet), ³¹⁶ pādabhramśa, ³¹⁷ pādasuptatā (insensibility of the feet), ³¹⁸ vātakhuddatā, ³¹⁹ gulphagraha, ³²⁰ piṇdikodveṣṭaṇa (cramps in the calves), ³²¹ gṛdhrasī (sciatica), ³²² jānubheda (tearing pain in the knees), ³²³ jānuviśleṣa (dislocation of the knee or kneecap), ³²⁴ ūrustambha (stiffness

of the thighs), 325 ūrusāda (weakness of the thigh muscles), 326 pārigulya (lameness of the legs), ³²⁷ gudabhramśa (prolapse of the anus or rectum), ³²⁸ gudārti (proctalgia), ³²⁹ vrsanāksepa, 330 sephastambha, 331 vanksanānāha, 332 sronibheda (a tearing pain in the pelvic region), 333 vidbheda (loosening of faecal matter), 334 udāvarta, 335 khañjatva (limping), 336 kubjatva (kyphoscoliosis), 337 vāmanatva (dwarfism), 338 trikagraha (pain in the sacral region), 339 prsthagraha (pain in the back), 340 pārśvāvamarda,341 udarāvesta (a constricting pain in the abdomen),342 hrnmoha (cardiac dysfunction),³⁴³ hrddrava,³⁴⁴ vaksa-uddharsa,³⁴⁵ vaksa-uparodha,³⁴⁶ vaksastoda (a pricking pain in the thorax), 347 bāhuśosa (wasting of the arms), 348 grīvāstambha (stiffness of the neck), 349 manyāstambha (stiffness of the sternomastoid muscles), 350 kanthoddhvamsa (hoarseness), 351 hanubheda (tearing pain in the jaw), 352 osthabheda (fissures of the lips), 353 aksibheda, 354 dantabheda, 355 dantasaithilya (loose teeth), mūkatva (dumbness), 356 vākyasanga, 357 kasāyāsyatā (an astringent taste in the mouth),358 mukhaśosa (dryness of the mouth),359 arasa jñatā (loss of taste),360 ghrānanāśa (loss of smell), 361 karnaśūla (piercing pain in the ears), 362 aśabdaśravaṇa, 363 uccaiḥśruti, 364 bādhirya (deafness), 365 vartmastambha (stiffness of the eyelids),³⁶⁶ vartmasamkoca,³⁶⁷ timira (loss of vision),³⁶⁸ aksiśūla (piercing pain in the eyes), aksivyudāsa, 369 bhrūvyudāsa, 370 sankhabheda (tearing pain in the temporal region), lalātabheda (tearing pain in the forehead), śirorui (headache), 371 keśabhūmisphutana, ³⁷² ardita (facial paresis), ³⁷³ ekāngaroga (monoplegia), ³⁷⁴ sarvāngaroga (tetraplegia), 375 paksavadha (hemiplegia), 376 āksepaka (convulsions), 377 dandaka (a type of convulsions), 378 tamas, 379 bhrama, 380 vepathu (trembling), 381 irmbhā (yawning), 382 hikkā (hiccup), 383 visāda, 384 atipralāpa (very confused speech), 385 rauksya, 386 pārusya, 387 syāvārunāvabhāsatā, 388 asvapna (insomnia), 389 and anavasthitacittatva (mental instability) (20.11). 390

This list of vāta disorders is of a mixed character; some are vāta diseases and described as such (Ca.Ci.26), some are found in lists of symptoms brought about by vāta.³⁹¹ Moreover, the list is incomplete, because many more types of śūla, etc., are known than those enumerated in it.³⁹² Nevertheless, the eighty vāta disorders have become an established element of āyurvedic doctrine and are found in many later treatises.³⁹³

The forty nānātmaja disorders of pitta are: ³⁹⁴ oṣa, ³⁹⁵ ploṣa, ³⁹⁶ dāha, ³⁹⁷ davathu, ³⁹⁸ dhūmaka, ³⁹⁹ amlaka, ⁴⁰⁰ vidāha, ⁴⁰¹ antardāha (a burning sensation in chest and belly), ⁴⁰² aṃsadāha (a burning sensation in the shoulder region), ūṣmādhikya (a high body temperature), atisveda (excessive perspiration), ⁴⁰³ aṅgagandha (a foul body odour), aṅgāvadaraṇa, ⁴⁰⁴ śoṇitakleda, ⁴⁰⁵ māṃsakleda, ⁴⁰⁶ tvagdāha (a burning sensation in the skin), tvagavadaraṇa (desquamation), ⁴⁹⁷ carmadalana (excoriation), ⁴⁰⁸ raktakoṭha (red weals), ⁴⁰⁹ raktavisphoṭa (red vesicles), ⁴¹⁰ raktapitta, ⁴¹¹ raktamaṇḍala (round erythematous patches), ⁴¹² haritatva (a greenish colour), ⁴¹³ hāridratva (a yellow colour), nīlikā (dark moles), ⁴¹⁴ kakṣā (herpes zoster), ⁴¹⁵ kāmalā (jaundice), ⁴¹⁶ tiktāṣyatā (a bitter taste in the mouth), ⁴¹⁷ lohitagandhāṣyatā, ⁴¹⁸ pūtimukhatā (foetor oris), tṛṣṇādhikya (excessive thirst), ⁴¹⁹ aṭrpti (absence of satisfaction after a meal), ⁴²⁰ āṣyavipāka (stomatitis), ⁴²¹ galapāka (pharyngitis), akṣipāka (inflammation of the eyes), gudapāka (inflammation of anus and rectum), ⁴²² meḍhrapāka (inflammation

of the penis or the urethra), jīvādāna, 423 tamaḥpraveśa (loss of consciousness), 424 and haritahāridranetramūtravarcastva (a greenish or yellow colour of eyes, urine and faeces) (20.14).

The twenty disorders of kapha are: 425 trpti (absence of appetite), 426 tandrā (drowsiness), 427 nidrādhikya (excessive sleep), staimitya, 428 gurugātratā (a feeling of heaviness in the limbs), 429 ālasya, 430 mukhamādhurya (a sweet taste in the mouth), 431 mukhasrāva (an excess of salivation), śleṣmodgiraṇa (the expectoration of phlegm), malasyādhikya (an excess of secretion and excretion), 432 balāsaka, 433 apakti (a deficient digestion), hṛdayopalepa, 434 kaṇthopalepa (an increased production of phlegm in the throat), 435 dhamanīpraticaya, 436 galagaṇḍa (goitre), 437 atisthaulya (excessive obesity), śītāgnitā (sluggishness of the digestive fire), 438 udarda (urticaria), 439 śvetāvabhāsatā (a white lustre of the skin), 440 and śvetamūtranetravarcastva (a white colour of urine, eyes and faeces) (20.17).

These pitta and kapha disorders are, like those by vāta, of a mixed character. Their enumeration is not exhaustive. 441 Related lists are found in many treatises. 442

Chapter twenty-one, called aṣṭauninditīya, is about discreditable (nindita) physical conditions in patients.

Eight types are enumerated: persons who are too tall or too short, too hirsute or too smooth, too dark or too light in colour, too obese or too lean (21.3).

The last two types are discussed in detail; the causes of these conditions are described, their characteristics, physiology, the diseases they lead to, and their treatment (21.4-34).⁴⁴³

The second part of the chapter is devoted to sleep,⁴⁴⁴ in particular sleeping during the day, which is beneficial in lean, harmful in obese patients. Rules concerning sleeping at night and during the day are formulated (21.35–57).⁴⁴⁵ Six types of sleep are distinguished: caused by tamas, kapha, fatigue, exogenous factors, diseases and the night (21.58–59).⁴⁴⁶

Chapter twenty-two, called langhanabṛṇḥaṇīya, gives an account of six basic forms of treatment (ṣaḍupakrama; 22.44), which consist of reducing (langhana), roborant (bṛṇḥaṇa) and desiccating (rūkṣaṇa) measures, oleation (snehana), sudation (svedana), and checking (stambhana).⁴⁴⁷ The theory underpinning these treatments is discussed (22.9–17),⁴⁴⁸ the medicinal substances employed in them, their indications, the signs of their proper and improper application, etc. (22.18–43).⁴⁴⁹

Chapter twenty-three, called saṃtarpaṇ $\bar{\imath}$ ya, is concerned with nourishing (saṃtarpaṇa) and depleting (apatarpaṇa) treatments.

The causes, signs and effects of overnutrition (saṃtarpaṇa) and undernutrition (apatarpaṇa) are described. Saṃtarpaṇa is counteracted by apatarpaṇa, apatarpaṇa by saṃtarpaṇa.

Chapter twenty-four, called vidhiśonitīya, deals with blood (śonita, rakta, rudhira) and some related topics.

Pure (śuddha)⁴⁵⁰ blood is described (24.3-4), the causes of corruption (dusti) of the

blood (24.5–10), and the disorders brought about by corrupted blood (24.11–16). ⁴⁵¹ Diseases which, although being curable, do not subside by means of the usual methods, should be diagnosed as caused by blood (24.17)⁴⁵² and be treated by specific procedures, consisting of purgation, fasting and bloodletting (śonitasrāvaṇa) (24.18). The signs of corruption of the blood by vāta, kapha, pitta and all three doṣas together are described (24.20–21), the characteristics of pure blood (24.22), ⁴⁵³ rules for bloodletting, its after-treatment, and the signs pointing to success (24.19, 23–24).

The four dosic varieties of the disorders called mada (intoxication)⁴⁵⁴ and mūrchāya (fainting)⁴⁵⁵ are discussed. These disorders arise when the channels (srotas) transporting blood, rasa and conscious perception (samjñā) are obstructed by the dosas. Mada is of three types: caused by alcoholic drinks, poisons and blood. Both mada and mūrchāya subside spontaneously, without treatment (24.25–42). ⁴⁵⁶

Samnyāsa (prolonged loss of consciousness)⁴⁵⁷ has the same origin as mada and mūrchāya, but does not disappear without treatment (24.42–53).

Therapeutic measures which are helpful in counteracting mada and mūrchāya are described at the end of the chapter (24.54-58).⁴⁵⁸

Chapter twenty-five, called yajjahpuruṣīya, begins with a discussion among a group of sages ⁴⁵⁹ about the origin (prāgutpatti) of man (puruṣa), who consists of an aggregate of ātman, the senses (indriya), manas, the objects of the senses and the multitude (rāśi) of his diseases (25.4).

Vāmaka, king of Kāśī, inquires whether the origin of man is the same as that of his diseases. Pārīkṣi Maudgalya brings forward that, as the puruṣa arises from ātman, the diseases also arise from it. Śaraloman disagrees; in his view, manas, also called sattva, when pervaded by rajas and tamas, is the basis of the human body and its diseases. Vāryovida contradicts him, being convinced that rasa is to be regarded as the prime cause. Hiraṇyākṣa says that the puruṣa originates from the six dhātus, as expounded by the ancient Sāmkhyas. ⁴⁶⁰ Kauśika proposes that a human being originates from his parents, who also transmit the diseases inherent in the human condition. The puruṣa and his diseases are a product of karman in Bhadrakāpya's eyes, but of svabhāva in Bharadvāja's opinion. Kāṅkāyana posits Prajāpati as the prime cause, bhikṣu Ātreya regards kāla (time) as such. ⁴⁶¹ At the end of this discussion, Ātreya Punarvasu declares that all the entities (bhāva) that generate a human being, when suitably combined, cause his disorders when this suitable combination is interfered with (25.5–29). ⁴⁶²

Vāmaka then asks Ātreya about the underlying cause of these suitable (saṃpad) and unsuitable (vipad) combinations. Ātreya replies that wholesome food makes the puruṣa develop, whereas unwholesome food leads to diseases. Agniveśa is desirous of knowing how these two types of diet may be defined. Ātreya gives these defimitions and proceeds with a long excursion about diet (25.30–35).

Articles of food (āhāra) are of one kind regarded as food, of two kinds with respect to their source: of vegetable and animal origin; they are of two kinds as to their effect: wholesome (hita) and unwholesome (ahita), of four kinds with regard to their way of intake: drinkable (pāna), eatable (aśana), chewable (bhakṣya) and suitable to be licked (lehya), 463 of six kinds according to their taste, and of twenty kinds according to their

properties (25.30-35).464

The most wholesome⁴⁶⁵ and unwholesome among groups of articles of diet are enumerated (25.38–39),⁴⁶⁶ followed by a list of one hundred and fifty-two drugs, remedial measures and other items considered to be foremost (agrya) among those constituting a particular group (25.40–41).⁴⁶⁷

Some verses about what is wholesome (pathya) and unwholesome (apathya) conclude this section.

The last part of the chapter is about fermented pharmaceutical preparations called āsava. ⁴⁶⁸ Eighty-four varieties are enumerated, distinguished into eight groups according to their source: cereals (dhānya; six items), fruits (twenty-six items), ⁴⁶⁹ roots (eleven items), heart-woods (sāra; twenty-items), flowers (ten items), stems (kāṇḍa; four items), leaves (two items), barks (tvac; four items), and śarkarā (one item). ⁴⁷⁰ The uses of āsavas are explained (25.48–50).

Chapter twenty-six, called ātreyabhadrakāpyīya, ⁴⁷¹ begins with a discussion among a group of sages⁴⁷² in the Caitraratha grove about the number of tastes (rasa) to be distinguished. ⁴⁷³

Bhadrakāpya advances that there is only one taste, not different from that of water. 474 The brāhmaṇa Śākunteya distinguishes two tastes, chedanīya 475 and upaśamanīya, 476 Pūrṇākṣa Maudgalya three tastes, chedanīya, upaśamanīya and an intermediate one (sādhāraṇa). Hiraṇyākṣa Kauśika prefers a number of four tastes: palatable (svādu) and wholesome (hita), palatable and unwholesome, unpalatable and wholesome, unpalatable and unwholesome. Five tastes, derived from the five mahābhūtas, are acknowledged by Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja. The royal sage Vāryovida recognizes six tastes: guru (heavy), laghu (light), śīta (cold), uṣṇa (hot), snigdha (oleaginous), rūkṣa (dry). Nimi, the king of Videha, has a predilection for seven tastes: madhura (sweet), amla (acid), lavaṇa (salty), kaṭu (pungent), tikta (bitter), kaṣāya (astringent), and kṣāra (alkaline), while Baḍiśa Dhāmārgava opts for eight tastes, adding avyakta (indistinct) to the series of Nimi. Kānkāyana, the physician from Bāhlīka, claims that the tastes are innumerable (26.3–8).

Ātreya Punarvasu decides that there are six tastes: madhura, amla, lavaṇa, kaṭu, tikta and kaṣāya. Their common source (yoni) is water. Chedana and upaśamana are actions of the tastes; the same applies to sādhāraṇa. Palatability and unpalatability depend on subjective preferences (bhakti); wholesomeness and unwholesomeness are effects of prabhāva (specific action). The products (vikāra) of the five mahābhūtas form the substratum of the tastes. The six tastes of Vāryovida are qualities (guṇa) of substances (dravya). Kṣāra is a substance, endowed with a number of tastes. Indistinctness is found in the source of the tastes (i.e., water) and in (substances) with an after-taste (anurasa) (26.9).

The properties and actions of (medicinal) substances in which one of the five mahā-bhūtas predominates are described (26.10–12),⁴⁷⁷ followed by a verse on the factors which make a (medicinal) substance active (26.13).⁴⁷⁸

The next section (26.14-44) is devoted to the tastes, a series of properties (guṇa), and the relationships between the tastes and the mahābhūtas.

Sixty-three combinations of tastes are distinguished;⁴⁷⁹ these combinations become innumerable if the after-tastes (anurasa) are also taken into consideration. Taste and after-taste are defined. ⁴⁸⁰ Successful treatment depends on the proper administration of drugs with a particular combination of tastes (26.14-.28).

The list of ten gunas ⁴⁸¹ consists of paratva (superiority), aparatva (inferiority), ⁴⁸² yukti, ⁴⁸³ samkhyā (number), samyoga (conjunction), ⁴⁸⁴ vibhāga (disjunction), ⁴⁸⁵ prthaktva (separateness), ⁴⁸⁶ parimāņa (measurement), samskāra (processing), ⁴⁸⁷ and abhyāsa (repetitive practice) (26.29–35).

The relationships between the six tastes and the five mahābhutas are discussed (26.39-41). ⁴⁸⁸

The properties and actions of each of the six tastes are elaborately described (26.43), 489 followed by relationships between tastes on the one hand, vīrya, guṇa and karman on the other; exceptions to general rules are given; the three degrees of the six chief properties (guṇa) with regard to the tastes are discussed (26.45–56). 490

Vipāka (post-digestive taste) is dealt with; katu, tikta and kaṣāya are transformed into katu, amia remains amla, madhura and lavaṇa are madhura after digestion; three degrees of vipāka are distinguished (26.57-63).⁴⁹¹

Vīrya is taken account of; the number of vīryas is either eight: nindu (soft), tīkṣṇa (sharp), guru (heavy), laghu (light), snigdha (oleaginous), rūkṣa (dry), uṣṇa (hot) and śīta (cold), or two only: śīta and uṣṇa (26.64–67).

Prabhāva (specific action) is described as a property which cannot be explained, being beyond reasoning (acintya) (26.68–71). 493

Vipāka is declared to be stronger than rasa, vīrya overcomes vipāka, and prabhāva is even stronger than vīrya (26.72). 494

Actions of the tastes are mentioned again (26.74-79).495

After this long exposition of Ātreya, Āgniveśa asks him to give an account of disagreeing (vairodhika) articles of food. ⁴⁹⁶ Ātreya, complying with this request, says that substances may be antagonistic to constituents (dhātu) of the body due to their properties, combination, processing, nature (svabhāva), etc. As an example he mentions the combination of fish and milk. Bhadrakāpya objects, asserting that milk may freely be taken together with fish, the fish called cilicima excepted (26.80–83). ⁴⁹⁷

A long exposition by Ātreya on numerous antagonistic articles of diet (26.84), ⁴⁹⁸ types of antagonism (26.86–101), ⁴⁹⁹ bad effects of antagonistic foods, and the treatment of disorders resulting from disregarding the rules (26.102–106), is found at the end of the chapter.

Chapter twenty-seven, called annapānavidhi, 500 is concerned with articles of diet (annapāna) and describes their medicinal properties and actions.

The foods and drinks are divided into the following groups: ⁵⁰¹ śūkadhānya (awned cereals; 27.8–22); ⁵⁰² śamīdhānya (pulse; 27.23–34); ⁵⁰³ mārnsa (meat; 27.35–87); ⁵⁰⁴ śāka (vegetables; 27.88cd–124); ⁵⁰⁵ phala (fruits; 27.125–165); ⁵⁰⁶ harita (vegetables used in salads; 27.166–177); ⁵⁰⁷ madya (alcoholic drinks; 27.178–195); ⁵⁰⁸ jala (water; 27.196–216); ⁵⁰⁹ gorasa (milk and milk products; 27.217–236); ⁵¹⁰ ikṣu (the sugarcane and its products; 27.237–242); ⁵¹¹ honey ⁵¹² and a disorder caused by honey (madhvā-

ma) (27.243–249); ⁵¹³ kṛtānna (prepared dishes; 27.250–285); ⁵¹⁴ oils ⁵¹⁵ and other fatty substances (27.286–295); āhārayogin (adjuvants and condiments used in the preparation of foods; 26.296–308). ⁵¹⁶

The groups of animals⁵¹⁷ distinguished are: prasaha (27.35–37ab);⁵¹⁸ bhūmiśaya (27.37cd–38);⁵¹⁹ ānūpamṛga (27.39);⁵²⁰ vāriśaya (27.40–41a), vāricārin (27.41b–44);⁵²¹ jāṅgalamṛga (27.45–46); viṣkira (27.47–49);⁵²² pratuda (27.50–53ab).⁵²³

The animals belonging to the prasahas ⁵²⁴ are: cow, ⁵²⁵ ass (khara), ⁵²⁶ mule (aśvatara), ⁵²⁷ camel, ⁵²⁸ horse, leopard (dvīpin), ⁵²⁹ lion, ⁵³⁰ bear (rkṣa), ⁵³¹ monkey (vānara), ⁵³² wolf (vṛka), ⁵³³ tiger (vyāghra), ⁵³⁴ tarakṣu, ⁵³⁵ babhru, ⁵³⁶ cat, mouse (mūṣika), ⁵³⁷ fox (lopāka), ⁵³⁸ jackal (jambuka), ⁵³⁹ śyena, ⁵⁴⁰ dog (vāntāda), ⁵⁴¹ cāṣa, ⁵⁴² vāyasa (crow), ⁵⁴³ śaśaghnī, ⁵⁴⁴ madhuhan, ⁵⁴⁵ bhāsa, ⁵⁴⁶ gṛdhra, ⁵⁴⁷ ulūka, ⁵⁴⁸ kulingaka, ⁵⁴⁹ dhūmikā, ⁵⁵⁰ and kurara; ⁵⁵¹

the bhūmiśayas⁵⁵² are: four kinds of kākulīmṛga,⁵⁵³ kūrcikā,⁵⁵⁴ cillaṭa,⁵⁵⁵ bheka (frog),⁵⁵⁶ godhā (varan),⁵⁵⁷ śallaka,⁵⁵⁸ gaṇḍaka,⁵⁵⁹ kadalī,⁵⁶⁰ nakula,⁵⁶¹ and śvāvidh:⁵⁶²

the \bar{a} nūpamṛgas 563 are: sṛmara, 564 camara, 568 kha ϕ ga, 566 mahiṣa, 567 gavaya, 568 gaja (elephant), 569 nyariku, 570 var \bar{a} ha, 571 and ruru; 572

to the vārišayas belong: kūrma, ⁵⁷³ karkaṭaka (crab), ⁵⁷⁴ matsya (fishes), ⁵⁷⁵ šiśumāra, ⁵⁷⁶ timingila, ⁵⁷⁷ śukti, ⁵⁷⁸ śankha, ⁵⁷⁹ ūdra, ⁵⁸⁰ kumbhīra, ⁵⁸¹ culukī, ⁵⁸² makara, ⁵⁸³ etc.:

to the vāricārin group belong: haṃsa, ⁵⁸⁴ kraunīca, ⁵⁸⁵ balākā, ⁵⁸⁶ baka, ⁵⁸⁷ kāraṇḍava, ⁵⁸⁸ plava, ⁵⁸⁹ śarāri, ⁵⁹⁰ puṣkarāhva, ⁵⁹¹ keśarin, ⁵⁹² maṇituṇḍaka, ⁵⁹³ mṛṇālakaṇtha, ⁵⁹⁴ madgu, ⁵⁹⁵ kādamba, ⁵⁹⁶ kākatuṇḍaka, ⁵⁹⁷ utkrośa, ⁵⁹⁸ puṇḍarīkākṣa, ⁵⁹⁹ megharāva, ⁶⁰⁰ ambukukkuṭī, ⁶⁰¹ ārā, ⁶⁰² nandīmukhī, ⁶⁰³ vāṭī, ⁶⁰⁴ sumukha, ⁶⁰⁵ sahacārin, ⁶⁰⁶ rohiṇī, ⁶⁰⁷ kāmakālī, ⁶⁰⁸ sārasa, ⁶⁰⁹ raktaśīrṣaka, ⁶¹⁰ cakravāka, ⁶¹¹ etc.;

jāṅgalamṛgas⁶¹² are: pṛṣata, ⁶¹³ śarabha, ⁶¹⁴ rāma, ⁶¹⁵ śvadaṇṣṭṛa, ⁶¹⁶ mṛgamāṭṛkā, ⁶¹⁷ śaśa, ⁶¹⁸ uraṇa, ⁶¹⁹ kuraṅga, ⁶²⁰ gokarṇa, ⁶²¹ koṭṭakāraka, ⁶²² cāruṣka, ⁶²³ hariṇa, ⁶²⁴ eṇa, ⁶²⁵ śambara, ⁶²⁶ kālapucchaka, ⁶²⁷ ṛṣya, ⁶²⁸ and varapota; ⁶²⁹

to the lāvādya subgroup of the viṣkiras⁶³⁰ belong: lāva,⁶³¹ vartīraka,⁶³² vārtīka,⁶³³ kapiñjala,⁶³⁴ cakora,⁶³⁵ upacakra,⁶³⁶ kukkubha,⁶³⁷ and raktavartmaka,⁶³⁸

to the vartakādi subgroup belong: vartaka, 639 vartikā, 640 barhin, 641 tittiri, 642 kukkuta, 643 kanka, 644 śārapada, 645 indrābha, 646 gonarda, 647 girivartaka, 648 krakara, 649 avakara, 650 and vārada; 651

the group called pratuda⁶⁵² consists of: śatapattra,⁶⁵³ bhrngarāja,⁶⁵⁴ koyaṣṭi,⁶⁵⁵ jīva(ñ)jīvaka,⁶⁵⁶ kairāta,⁶⁵⁷ kokila,⁶⁵⁸ atyūha,⁶⁵⁹ gopāputra,⁶⁶⁰ priyātma ja,⁶⁶¹ laṭṭā,⁶⁶² laṭṭaṣāka (laṭūṣāka),⁶⁶³ babhru,⁶⁶⁴ vaṭahan,⁶⁶⁵ dindimānaka,⁶⁶⁶ jaṭī,⁶⁶⁷ dundubhi,⁶⁶⁸ pākkāra,⁶⁶⁹ lohapṛṣṭha,⁶⁷⁰ kulirigaka,⁶⁷¹ kapoṭa,⁶⁷² śuka,⁶⁷³ śāraṅga,⁶⁷⁴ ciraṭī,⁶⁷⁵ kanku,⁶⁷⁶ yaṣṭikā,⁶⁷⁷ sārikā,⁶⁷⁸ kalaviṅka,⁶⁷⁹ caṭaka,⁶⁸⁰ aṅgāracūḍaka,⁶⁸¹ pārāvata,⁶⁸² and pāṇḍavika (pāṇavika).⁶⁸³

The alcoholic drinks⁶⁸⁴ mentioned are: surā (27.179),⁶⁸⁵ madirā (27.180), jagala (27.181), ariṣṭa (27.182),⁶⁸⁶ śārkara (27.183),⁶⁸⁷ pakvarasa (27.184),⁶⁸⁸ śītarasika (27.185),⁶⁸⁹ gauḍa (27.186ab),⁶⁹⁰ ākṣikī (27.186cd),⁶⁹¹ surāsava (27.187cd),⁶⁹³ madhvāsava (27.187cd),⁶⁹³ maireya (27.187cd),⁶⁹⁴ mrdvīkāsava (27.188),⁶⁹⁵ ikṣurasāsava (27.188),⁶⁹⁶ madhvāsava (27.189), yavasurā (27.190ab),⁶⁹⁷ madhūlikā

(27.190cd),⁶⁹⁸ sauvīraka (27.191), tusodaka (27.191) and kāñjika (27.192).

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to special rules concerning articles of diet (27.309–318⁶⁹⁹ and 329–350) and to accompanying drinks (anupāna; 27.319–328). ⁷⁰⁰

Chapter twenty-eight, called vividhāśitapīūya, deals with a variety of subjects: the formation of constituents of the body from the four kinds of food ingested (28.3–5); ⁷⁰¹ the factors, apart from wholesome or unwholesome food, which influence the appearance, severity and course of diseases (28.6–7); ⁷⁰² the diseases arising when the dosas affect one of the seven elements of the body (28.9–19), ⁷⁰³ the sense organs (28.20), ⁷⁰⁴ ligaments (snāyu), vessels (sirā) and tendons (kaṇḍarā) (28.21), and the malas (28.22); ⁷⁰⁵ the treatment of these diseases (28.23–30); the movement of the doṣas from the trunk (koṣtha) to peripheral parts (śākhā) of the body, and vice versa (28.31–33); the differences in behaviour with regard to food between those who are sensible and those who are foolish (28.34–44).

Chapter twenty-nine, called daśaprāṇāyatanīya, ⁷⁰⁶ describes the ten seats (āyatana) of the vital breaths (prāṇāḥ); these ten seats are the temples (śankha), the three vital organs (marmatraya: heart, bladder, head), ⁷⁰⁷ the throat (kantha), blood, semen, ojas, and anorectal region (guda) (29.3–4). ⁷⁰⁸

The larger part of the chapter gives a long account of the characteristics of accomplished physicians (prāṇābhisara) 709 on the one hand and quacks 710 (bhiṣakchadma-praticchanna) on the other (29.5–13). A fully qualified physician should be conversant with all the subjects taught in the Sūtrasthāna. 711

Chapter thirty, called arthedaśamahāmūlīya, 712 deals with the following subjects: the heart (hrd, hrdaya)⁷¹³ and the ten great vessels (mahāmūla) attached to it; ⁷¹⁴ the ojas transported in these vessels; the vessels called dhamam, 715 srotas and sirā, 716 characterized by their inflatedness (dhmāna), 717 oozing out (nutritive substances) (sravana)⁷¹⁸ and carrying function (sarana); ⁷¹⁹ measures to protect one's heart (30.3-15); the study of ayurveda (30.16-19); the relationship between the ayurveda and the Vedas, in particular the Atharvaveda (30.20-21);⁷²⁰ definitions of avurveda and āyus (30.22-23);⁷²¹ the object of āyurveda and its eternity (30.24-27); the eight branches (anga) of āyurveda: 722 kāyacikitsā (internal medicine), śālākya (the branch dealing with diseases of the supraclavicular region), 723 śalyāpahartrka (the extraction of foreign bodies),⁷²⁴ visagaravairodhikaprasamana (the treatment of intoxications), bhūtavidyā (demonology), 725 kaumārabhrtyaka (the treatment of women during pregnancy, delivery and the puerperium, coupled with paediatrics),⁷²⁶ rasāyana (the science of longevity), and vājīkarana (the science concerned with aphrodisiacs) (30.28); 727 those qualified for the study of ayurveda (30.29); the eight topics of discussion among physicians (30.30); synonyms of avurveda (30.31); the scope of āyurveda (30.32); a table of contents of the Carakasamhitā (30.33-68); the eight topics of discussion again and the exposition of those with insufficient knowledge (30.69 - 85).

Chapter 2 Nidānasthāna

Chapter one is devoted to the nidana of fever (jvara).

The general features of nidāna are discussed first: the synonyms of nidāna² and its three types: asātmyendriyārthasaṃyoga, prajñāparādha and pariṇāma;³ the classification of diseases into three groups: āgneya (= caused by pitta), saumya (= caused by kapha) and vāyavya (= caused by vāyu), to which the rājasa and tāmasa diseases are added; the synonyms of vyādhi (disease); the five means to acquire knowledge (upalabdhi) about a disease: nidāna, pūrvarūpa, linga, upaśaya and saṃprāpti; ⁴ the synonyms of pūrvarūpa (prodrome), ⁵ linga (symptom), ⁶ upaśaya (therapeutic diagnosis) ⁷ and saṃprāpti (onset); ⁸ the subdivisions of saṃprāpti: saṃkhyā (number), prādhānya (predominance), vidhi (type), vikalpa (proportional variation), and balakāla (the time of aggravation); definitions of saṃkhyā, ⁹ prādhānya, ¹⁰ vidhi, ¹¹ vikalpa, ¹² and balakāla la ¹³ (1.3–12).

Reference is made to the eight diseases which will be discussed in the Nidānasthāna. These diseases arose from lobha (greed), abhidroha (malice) and kopa (anger). ¹⁴ Their treatment will also be described, but only summarily, because this subject will be dealt with in extenso in the Cikitsāsthāna (1.15).

Jvara (fever)¹⁵ is described first, because it was the earliest somatic ¹⁶ disease to appear among living beings (1.16). ¹⁷

Eight types of fever are to be distinguished: ¹⁸ caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, the three combinations of two dosas, the three dosas together, and exogenous factors (āgantu) (1.17). ¹⁹ The dosic types are described (1.18–29). ²⁰ An āgantu (exogenous) fever is brought about by abhighāta (injury), ²¹ abhiṣaṅga (intense emotions and possession by malignant beings), abhicāra (sorcery), and abhisāpa (curses) (1.30). Various classifications of fevers are mentioned (1.32). ²² The prodromes of fever are described (1.33). ²³ General features of fever as an affliction occurring in all living beings are dealt with; its first origin from Maheśvara's anger is referred to (1.35). ²⁴ The treatment of fever is succinctly discussed (1.36–40).

Chapter two is about raktapitta (blood-bile, i.e., haemorrhagic disorders). 25

The subjects dealt with are: the nidāna and samprāpti of raktapitta; the meaning of the term raktapitta (2.3–5);²⁶ the prodromes (2.6);²⁷ the complications (upadrava; 2.7);²⁸ the characteristics of the upwards (ūrdhvabhāga) and downwards (adhobhāga) moving types, and of the type following both pathways (2.8);²⁹ the first appearance of raktapitta in the wake of the destruction of Dakṣa's sacrifice (2.10);³⁰ the curability of the upwards moving type, palliability of the downwards moving type, incurability of

the type moving along both pathways; characteristics of these types, and the possibilities of treatment $(2.9 \text{ and } 11-27).^{31}$

Chapter three is concerned with gulma (visceral swellings). 32

The subjects dealt with are: the five types of gulma, caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas together, and blood (3.3);³³ knowledge about these types, to be acquired from their aetiology, prodromes, symptoms, types of pain (vedanā)³⁴ and upaśaya (3.5); the aetiology, symptoms, types of pain and upaśaya of the four doṣic types (3.6–12);³⁵ gulma caused by blood (raktagulma), a disorder only occurring in women,³⁶ characterized by symptoms simulating pregnancy (3.13–14);³⁷ the general prodromes of gulma (3.15); general rules about the treatment of gulma (3.16).

Chapter four is concerned with prameha (urinary disorders).³⁸

The subjects dealt with are: generalities about the origin of prameha and its becoming manifest (4.3-4);³⁹ the aetiology of prameha brought about by kapha (4.5); the constituents of the body (dūsya) which are corrupted in prameha; medas, 40 māmsa (muscular tissue), śarīrajakleda (body-fluids), śukra (semen), śonita (blood), vasā (muscle fat), 41 majjā (bone marrow), lasīkā (serous fluid), 42 rasa (nutrient fluid), and ojas (4.7); the samprāpti of prameha due to kapha (4.8); kapha and medas, after their transformation into urine, give rise to ten kinds of prameha, due to their association with ten properties (guna) of kapha; these ten properties are: śveta (white), śīta (cold), mūrta (thickly viscous), picchila (thinly mucous), accha (transparent), snigdha (oily), guru (heavy), madhura (sweet), sandraprasada (clear), and manda (slowly flowing); 43 the ten kinds of kapha japrameha are connected with one or more of these properties (4.9);⁴⁴ these ten pramehas are: udakameha.⁴⁵ iksuvālikārasameha.⁴⁶ sāndrameha,⁴⁷ sāndraprasādameha,⁴⁸ śuklameha,⁴⁹ śukrameha,⁵⁰ śītameha,⁵¹ sikatāmeha,⁵² śanairmeha,⁵³ and ālālameha⁵⁴ (4.10);⁵⁵ the curability of these ten disorders (4.11);⁵⁶ descriptions of these ten pramehas (4.13-22);⁵⁷ the aetiology of the six kinds of prameha arising from pitta; their names: ksārameha, 58 kālameha, 59 nīlameha, 60 lohitameha, 61 mānijisthameha, 62 and hāridrameha; 63 the six properties of pitta, associated with them: ksāra (alkaline), amla (acid), lavana (salty), katuka (pungent), visra (smelling after raw meat), and usna (hot)⁶⁴ (4.24-26); the palliability of the pitta ja pramehas (4.27); 65 descriptions of these six pramehas (4.29-34); 66 the aetiology and samprapti of prameha due to vata; the four kinds, called vasameha, 67 majjāmeha, 68 hastimeha 69 and madhumeha, 70 arise when the vasā, majjā, lasīkā and ojas are corrupted by vāta (4.36-37); the incurability of these disorders (4.38):⁷¹ descriptions of these four pramehas (4.41-44);⁷² the general prodromes of prameha (4.47); ⁷³ its complications (4.48); ⁷⁴ a succinct statement on the treatment of prameha (4.49).

Chapter five is devoted to kustha (skin diseases, including leprosy). 75

The subjects dealt with are: the seven constituents of the body which, when they are subject to pathological changes (vikṛti), lead to kuṣṭha: the three doṣas and four elements of the body (dūṣya, dhātu): tvac (the layers of the skin), māṃsa (muscular tissue),

śonita (blood) and lasīkā (serious fluid) (5.3); ⁷⁶ seven, eighteen or innumerable varieties of kuṣṭha can be distinguished, which differ in several respects, but only seven of these will be described (5.4); ⁷⁷ these varieties are characterized by the predominance of one, two or three doṣas: vāta predominates in kapālakuṣṭha, pitta in audumbara, kapha in maṇḍalakuṣṭha; vāta and pitta predominate in ṛṣyajihva, pitta and kapha in puṇḍarī-ka, ⁷⁸ kapha and vāta in sidhmakuṣṭha, all three doṣas in kākaṇaka (5.5); ⁷⁹ the aetiology and saṇiprāpti of all kinds of kuṣṭha (5.6); ⁸⁰ their prodromes (5.7); ⁸¹ descriptions of the seven (mahā)kuṣthas (5.8); their curability, etc., and their complications (5.9–11). ⁸²

Chapter six is devoted to śoṣa 83 (wasting diseases). 84

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology and onset of śoṣa; its four causes: inconsiderate behaviour (sāhasa), ⁸⁵ suppression of natural urges (saṃdhāraṇa), deficiency of the rasa (nutrient fluid) staying in the heart, deficiency of the semen, and an unbalanced diet (viśamāśana) (6.3–11); ⁸⁶ śoṣa, the most troublesome of all diseases, is also called rājayakṣman (kingly consumption), ⁸⁷ because the venerable Soma, the king of the asterisms (uḍurāja), was afflicted by it in ancient times ⁸⁸ (6.12); ⁸⁹ the prodromes (6.13); ⁹⁰ the eleven symptoms (6.14); ⁹¹ curable and incurable forms of the disease (6.15–16). ⁹²

Chapter seven is devoted to unmāda (insanity). 93

It deals with the following subjects: the five types of this disease: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas together, and exogenous factors (āgantu) (7.3);⁹⁴ the persons in whom insanity may arise when the excited doṣas go to the heart and obstruct the channels carrying the manas (7.4); ⁹⁵ a definition of unmāda (7.5); ⁹⁶ the prodromes (7.6); ⁹⁷ the symptoms of insanity caused by vāta, pitta, kapha and all three doṣas simultaneously (7.7); ⁹⁸ the treatment of the three curable types (caused by one doṣa) (7.8–9); ⁹⁹ the exogenous type, basically caused by errors in judgment (prajnāparādha), but aggravated due to possession by gods, demons, etc.; ¹⁰⁰ the prodromes of possession (bhūtonmāda); the ways in which it is initiated (ārambhaviśeṣa); ¹⁰¹ its symptoms; the circumstances making one susceptible to possession (abhighātakāla); the three objectives (prayojana) of beings who may induce possession: hiṃsā (violence), rati (pleasure), abhyarcana (worship); ¹⁰² treatment (7.10–16); combinations of endogenous and exogenous insanity (7.18); insanity is always the result of one's own deeds and should not (primarily) be attributed to (possession by) gods, demons, etc. (7.19–23). ¹⁰³

Chapter eight, on apasmāra (epilepsy) and a number of other subjects is concerned with: the four types of epilepsy: ¹⁰⁴ caused by vāta, pitta, kapha and all three doṣas together (8.3); ¹⁰⁵ persons susceptible to apasmāra; its saṃprāpti (8.4); ¹⁰⁶ a definition of apasmāra (8.5); ¹⁰⁷ the prodromes (8.6); ¹⁰⁸ the symptoms of the four doṣic types (8.8); ¹⁰⁹ the secondary involvement (anubandha) of an exogenous factor (8.9); ¹¹⁰ treatment (8.10).

The diseases which arose in the wake of the destruction of Dakṣa's sacrifice ¹¹¹ are mentioned; gulma, prameha, kuṣṭha, unmāda, apasmāra, jvara, raktapitta and rā-jayaksman (8.11). ¹¹²

1 Carakasamhitā

30

A disease may serve as the cause of another disease, in which case it is called nidānārthakara or hetvarthakārin; diseases may present themselves as such and remain in that condition, or mainly as the cause of another disease, or they may do both (8.16–23). One cause may lead to one or to several disorders; one disorder may be brought about by diverse factors, and the same factors may also give rise to various diseases (8.24–26). A particular symptom may occur in one disease or many diseases; numerous symptoms are common to various diseases (8.27–29). The same principles apply to treatment; a particular measure may be useful in one or many disorders; one disorder may require one or several measures (8.30–32). The chapter ends with some verses on general aspects of therapy (8.33–41).

Chapter 3 Vimānasthāna

Chapter one, called rasavimāna, ¹deals with: the subjects of the Vimānasthāna (1.3); the roles of the tastes in substances and of the dosas in disorders (vikāra); the connections between tastes and dosas; the analysis of the roles played by tastes and dosas in complex substances and disorders, in which their effects agree with their properties and actions (1.4–9); cases, where this analysis cannot be carried out, because the effects disagree with the properties and actions of the tastes and dosas involved; substances and disorders of this type exhibit a specific action proper to aggregates (samudāyaprabhāva), due to their being vikrtiviṣamasamaveta; this specific action (prabhāva) is of various types: rasa-, dravya-, doṣa- and vikāraprabhāva; these concepts are discussed and many examples are given (1.10–18);² sātmya (individual suitability), a concept linked to prabhāva (1.19–20);³ the eight factors involved in diet (āhāravidhiviśeṣāyatana): the nature (prakṛti, svabhāva) of an article of food or a drug, its processing (karana, abhisaṃskāra), ⁴ the combination (saṃyoga) of substances, their quantity (rāśi), place (deśa),⁵ and time (kāla), rules concerning diet (upayogasaṃsthā), and the consumer (upayoktar) (1.21–22);⁶ rules concerning diet (1.23–25).

Chapter two, called trividhakukṣīya, is concerned with: the appropriate quantities of articles of diet (2.3–7); the causes of corruption of āma; ⁷ the diseases resulting from this corruption: visūcikā, ⁸ alasaka, ⁹ daṇ�ālasaka and āmaviṣa; ¹⁰ their pathogenesis, symptoms and treatment (2.8–14); ¹¹ the āmāśaya, lying between navel and nipples, as the place where the food is digested (2.15–18).

Chapter three, called janapadoddhvamsanīya, ¹² records the teachings of Punarvasu Ātreya during a stay in Kāmpilya, the capital of Pāñcāla, concerning epidemic diseases (janapadoddhvamsana). ¹³

These diseases are due to derangements (vaigunya) of air, water, country and season. ¹⁴ Preventive measures are described. Deviations from the dharma are the basic cause of epidemics (3.3–20), and, further, war, attacks by rākṣasas and afflictions caused by curses (3.21–23).

The characteristics of human beings during the Kṛta- and Tretāyuga are discussed, and the decrease of the life span (āyus) during the four ages (yuga) of the world (3.24–27). 15

Ātreya expounds his views on the life span, which is determined (niyata) or undetermined (aniyata), and dependent on the relative strength of daiva (i.e., one's deeds in previous lives) and purusakāra (one's deeds in the present life) (3.29–36); ¹⁶ he also

explains the causes of timely and untimely death (kāla- and akālarmtyu) (3.38).¹⁷

The subjects of the last part of the chapter are: the prescription of hot water to patients suffering from fever (3.39-41); ¹⁸ the treatment of diseases by means of measures which are contrary to their aetiology (nidānaviparīta) (3.42); the three types of depleting treatment (apatarpaṇa): laṅghana (reducing measures), laṅghanapācana (a combination of reducing and digestive measures) and doṣāvasecana (the expulsion of doṣas), to be applied in patients with doṣas of little, moderate and great strength respectively (3.43-45).

Chapter four, called trividharogavijñānīya, discusses the three sources of knowledge about diseases: āptopadeśa (the teachings of authoritative persons), pratyakṣa (perception) and anumāna (inference) (4.3). ¹⁹ These concepts are defined. Inference is explained as tarka (reasoning), supported by yukti (4.4). ²⁰ Āptopadeśa has to come first, followed by pratyakṣa and anumāna (4.5). The topics included in āptopadeśa are listed (4.6). Examples of pratyakṣa and anumāna are given (4.7). Inference procures knowledge about the state of the digestive fire (agni), a patient's strength (bala), his sense organs and manas, his vijñāna, ²¹ rajas, ²² and moha, ²³ his tendency to experience anger (krodha), grief (śoka), joy (harṣa), satisfaction (prīti), and fear (bhaya), his equanimity (dhairya), energy (vīrya), stability (avasthāna), faith (śraddhā), ²⁴ intelligence (medhā), alertness of mind (samjñā), ²⁵ memory (sınṛti), ²⁶ modesty (hrī), mode of conduct (śīla), dislikes (dveṣa), unreliability (upadhi), reliability (dhṛti), submissiveness (vaśyatā), etc. (4.8).

The chapter ends with verses giving a summary of the contents.

Chapter five, called srotasāṃ vimānam, is about the channels (srotas) in the human body,²⁷ which transport constituents (dhātu) subject to physiological transformations (pariṇāma). These constituents are: prāṇa (vital breath), udaka (water), anna (digested food), rasa (nutrient fluid), rakta (blood), māṇsa (muscular tissue), medas (fatty tissue), asthi (bone tissue), majjā (bone-marrow), śukra (semen), mūtra (urine), purīṣa (faeces), and sveda (sweat) (5.3–7).

The several groups of vessels are described.

The vessels carrying prāṇa ²⁸ have their origin in the heart (hṛdaya) and the mahāsrotas, ²⁹ those carrying udaka³⁰ in the root of the palate (tālamūla) and the kloman, ³¹ those carrying anna in the āmāśaya (receptacle of undigested food) and the left side of the chest (pārśva), those carrying rasa in the heart and the ten vessels called dhamanī, ³² those carrying rakta in the liver (yakṛt) and spleen (plīhan), those carrying māṃsa in the snāyus (cords) and skin (tvac), those carrying medas in the vṛkkas (kidneys) and vapāvahana (omentum maius), ³³ those carrying asthi³⁴ in the medas and buttocks (jaghana), those carrying majjā in the bones and joints, those carrying śukra in the testicles (vṛṣaṇa) and penis (śephas).

The signs indicating that the vessels transporting prāṇa, udaka and anna are corrupted (praduṣṭa) are indicated; ³⁵ the signs pointing to corruption of the other groups of vessels are the same as those of the transported constituents when corrupted and are therefore already described. ³⁶

The vessels carrying mūtra have their origin in the bladder (basti) and groins (vańkṣaṇa), those carrying purīṣa in the pakvāśaya (receptacle of digested food) and sthūlaguda (rectum),³⁷ those carrying sveda in the medas and hair follicles (lomakūpa); the signs of corruption of the last three groups of vessels are described (5.8).

The names of the visible and invisible spaces (avakāśa) for the dhātus are enumerated. The connections between corruption of the vessels (srotas), dhātus and doṣas are explained (5.9). The causes of corruption of the mentioned groups of vessels are dealt with (5.10–22), followed by some general statements on the vessels and the treatment of their corruption (5.23–28).

Chapter six, called rogānīkam vimānam, is devoted to various ways of classifying diseases; additional subjects are the bodily fire (agni) and the constitutions (prakṛti).

Dual groups (anīka) of diseases mentioned are those which are curable (sādhya) and incurable (asādhya), mild (mrdu) and severe (dāruṇa), ³⁸ bodily and mental, endogenous (nija) and exogenous (āgantu), arising from the āmāśaya and from the pakvāśaya. ³⁹ The various ways in which diseases may be classified are discussed (6.3-4).

The two psychic (mānasa) dosas, rajas and tamas, and the three somatic ones, taken together, produce all the innumerable diseases; their exciting factors are the same: asātmyendriyārthasaṃyoga, prajñāparādha and pariṇāma; rajas and tamas are always associated (niyata anubandha), because rajas impelstamas, which cannot move independently; the psychic and somatic dosas sometimes associate, working together; an example is the association between lust (kāma) and fever (6.5-9).

Somatic dosas in one and the same location (adhisṭhāna) giverise to combinations, called saṃnipāta when all three cooperate, and saṃsarga when two of them are linked to each other (6.10). Dosas are called primary (anubandhya) when they are independent (svatantra), secondary (anubandha) when otherwise; ⁴⁰ saṃnipāta and saṃsarga are combinations of primary dosas (6.11).

The bodily fire (agni) is off our types: tīkṣṇa (intense), manda (sluggish), sama (balanced), and viṣama (irregular); it is dependent on the habitual state of the doṣas in the organism; balance of the doṣas gives rise to a balanced fire, predominance of vāta, pitta or kapha to an irregular, intense or sluggish fire respectively (6.12).⁴¹

The theory that each human being is endowed with a constitution (prakṛti) dominated by one of the three doṣas, because a perfect equilibrium is never habitually present, ⁴² is rejected with the argument that health (ārogya) is identical with such an equilibrium, also called prakṛti. Persons described as having a vātala, pittala or śleṣmala constitution should therefore be regarded as suffering from a disorder. The characteristics of persons considered to be vātala, pittala and śleṣmala are described, together with appropriate treatments (6.13–18). ⁴³

Chapter seven, called vyādhitarūpīyam vimānam, begins with an exposition on the avoidance of diagnostic errors, easily made by inexperienced physicians. Those, only acquainted with part of the medical science, are deluded by the appearance (rūpa) of the patient (vyādhita), mistaking a severe disease (guruvyādhi) for a mild one

(laghuvyādhi) and a mild disease for a severe one (7.3-7).

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to parasites (krimi), the disorders caused by them and the treatment of these disorders 44 (7.8-27). 45

Twenty kinds of parasites are described; two kinds arising from external impure matter (bāhyamala): yūkā and pipīlikā; six kinds arising from blood: keśāda, lomāda, lomadvīpa, saurasa, audumbara, jantumātar; seven kinds arising from kapha: antrāda, udarāda, hṛdayacara, curu, darbhapuṣpa, saugandhika; five kinds arising from faecal matter: kakeruka, makeruka, leliha, saśūlaka, sausurāda. 46

Chapter eight, called rogabhiṣagjitīya, deals with the study of āyurveda, the selection of a teacher, the method of studying, the method of teaching, and the initiation of a student (8.3–14).⁴⁷

Discussions (saṃbhāṣā) among physicians constitute the next subject. ⁴⁸ These discussions are either friendly (saṃdhāya- or anulomasaṃbhāṣā); ⁵⁰ or hostile (vigṛhya-saṃbhāṣā); ⁵⁰ the opponent (para) is superior (pravara), inferior (pratyavara) or equal (sama); the assembly (pariṣad) is learned (jñānavatī) or ignorant (mūdhā), friendly (su-hrtpariṣad), neutral (udāsīnapariṣad) or prejudiced (pratinivisṭapariṣad) (8.15–26). ⁵¹

A long series of terms pertaining to learned discussions are given (8.27), defined and illustrated by means of examples (8.28-66).⁵²

These terms are: vāda (debate), of a positive (jalpa) or critical (vitandā) nature: 53 dravya, guna, karman, sāmānya, viśesa, samavāya, terms already discussed in the Ślokasthāna; 54 pratijñā (thesis); 55 sthāpanā (justification) 56 by means of hetu (reason), drstanta (corroborative instance), upanaya (correlation) and nigamana (establishment of the thesis);⁵⁷ pratisthāpanā (justification of a counter-thesis);⁵⁸ hetu (reason),⁵⁹ i.e., the means of obtaining knowledge (upalabdhikārana), consisting of pratyaksa (perception), anumāna (inference), aitihya (tradition)⁶⁰ and aupamya (analogy);⁶¹ dṛṣṭānta; 62 upanaya 63 and nigamana; 64 uttara (rejoinder); 65 siddhānta (conclusive theoretical statement), divided into sarvatantra- (generally acknowledged), pratitantra- (restrictedly valid), adhikarana- (implied)⁶⁶ and abhyupagamasiddhānta (hypothetical statement); 67 sabda (words), divided into drstārtha (based on observable facts), adrstārtha (based on unobservable entities), satva (consistent) and anrta (inconsistent), 68 pratyaksa, 69 anumāna, 70 aitihya, 71 aupamya; 72 samsaya (doubt), 73 prayojana (purpose);⁷⁴ savyabhicāra (uncertain statement, making allowance for exceptions);⁷⁵ jijīnāsā (enquiry);⁷⁶ vyavasāya (decision);⁷⁷ arthaprāpti (implied meaning); 78 sambhava (source); 79 anuyojya (questionable statement); 80 ananuvoiva (unquestionable statement);81 anuyoga (questioning about scriptural evidence);82 pratyanuyoga (counter-questioning), 83 vākyadosa 84 (flaws in speech), of five types: nyūna (deficient),85 adhika (superfluous),86 anarthaka (meaningless),87 apārthaka (incoherent), 88 and viruddha (incongruous); 89 vākyapraśamsā (commendable speech); 90 chala (deceptive speech); 91 ahetu (fallacious reasoning), 92 which is of three types: prakaranasama (relating to the topic), samśayasama (relating to doubt) and varnyasama (relating to the object); 93 atītakāla (a statement deviating from the proper temporal order);⁵⁴ upālambha (a statement pointing out defects in causal reasoning);⁹⁵ parihāra (refutation of upālambha);⁹⁶ prati jñāhāni (abandonment of the original thesis);⁹⁷ abhyanujñā (acceptance of an allegation, but turning it to the opponent);⁹⁸ hetvantara (fallacy of the reason adduced);⁹⁹ arthāntara (an irrelevant statement);¹⁰⁰ nigrahasthāna (reasons of defeat).¹⁰¹

Some general rules regarding debates among physicians conclude this section (8.67).

Ten concepts which a physician should be acquainted with before proceeding to action are discussed: kāraṇa (the agent), karaṇa (the instrument necessary for an agent to bring about an effort), kāryayoni (the material cause by the modification of which an effect is produced), kārya (that which is kept in view by the agent before making an effort), kāryaphala (the aim intended by the agent), anubandha (the good or bad effect which leaves its impact on the agent after making an effort), deśa (the location of an action), kāla (the process of temporal changes), pravṛtti (the effort leading to the production of an effect), 102 upāya (the special aptitudes of agent, instrument and material cause which make the effect possible) (8.68–79). 103

These concepts introduce a section on types of examination (parīkṣā) and discussions regarding this point (8.80-82). Two types of examination are mentioned: pratyakṣa and anumāna, or three, if upadeśa (= āptopadeśa) is included (8.83). 104

The ten concepts, consisting of kāraṇa, etc, are explained in their application to medicine (8.84–151). The kāraṇa is the physician (8.86), the karaṇa the remedy (8.87), the kāryayoni the imbalance of the dhātus (dhātuvaiṣamya), which leads to the emergence of a disorder (vikārāgama) (8.88), the kārya the equilibrium (sāmya) of the dhātus (9.89), kāryaphala welfare (sukha) (8.90), anubandha the preservation of one's life span (āyus) (8.91).

Desa has two meanings: the type of country in which a patient lives and the kind of soil on which a medicinal plant grows, ¹⁰⁵ and the patient (ātura) himself (8.92–93).

A patient should be examined with reference to his prakrti (constitution), vikṛti (pathology), sāra (predominance of the dhātus), 106 saṃhanana (compactness of the parts of the body), pramāṇa (measurements), sātmya (suitability), sattva (mental condition), āhāraśakti (power of intake and digestion of food), vyāyāmaśakti (power of physical exercise) and vayas (age) (8.94).

The factors determining the type of prakṛti are described. The types distinguished are śleṣmala (with a predominance of kapha), pittala (with a predominance of pitta), vātala (with a predominance of vāta), saṇṣṣṣṭa (with a predominance of two doṣas), 107 and samadhātu (with balance of the dosas) (8.95).

The properties of the doşas ¹⁰⁸ and the constitutional characteristics of those with predominance of one of them are described. The characteristics of those in whose constitution two doşas predominate and of those who are samadhātu can easily be deduced (8.96–100). ¹⁰⁹

The pathology of a patient is severe, moderate or mild, dependent on the strength of cause, doşa, dūṣya (corrupted constituent of the body), place, time, symptoms, and the interplay of these factors (8.101).

Eight types of sāra are described, in which respectively the elements tvac (skin), ¹¹⁰ rakta (blood), ¹¹¹ māṃsa (muscular tissue), ¹¹² medas (fatty tissue), ¹¹³ asthi (osseous tissue), ¹¹⁴ majiā (bone marrow), ¹¹⁵ sukra (semen) ¹¹⁶ and sattva (mental faculties)

predominate. Some persons are endowed with all these sāras in combination, others are asāra. The importance of the determination of a patient's sāra is emphasized (8.102–115). 117 Saṃhanana, also called saṃhati and saṃyojana, is briefly discussed (8.116). 118

The norm for the measurements of numerous parts of thebody is given; ¹¹⁹ the unit of these measurements is the breadth of one's own finger, called an angula (8.117). ¹²⁰ The parts of the body mentioned are: the two pādas (feet), janghās (lower legs), jānus (knees), ūrus (thighs), and vṛṣaṇas (testicles), the śepha(s) (penis), bhaga (vulva), katī (waist), bastiśiras, and udara (abdomen), the two pārśvas (sides of the chest), the stanāntara (part between the nipples), stanaparyanta (circumference of the nipples), uras (chest), and hṛdaya (apex of the heart), ¹²¹ the two skandhas (shoulders), aṇsas (shoulder blades), prabāhus (upper arms), ¹²² prapāṇis (lower arms), ¹²³ hastas (hands), and kaṣas (armpits), the trika (sacral region), pṛṣṭha (back), śirodharā (neck), ānana (face), āsya (mouth), cibuka (chin), oṣṭhas (lips), karṇas (ears), akṣimadhya (part between the eyes), nāsikā (nose), lalāta (forehead), and śiras (head).

Sātmya is succinctly dealt with (8.118). ¹²⁴ Sattva is, according to its strength, of three types: superior (pravara), medium (madhya) and inferior (avara); ¹²⁵ persons of the first category are the same as those called sattvasāra (8.119). Āhāraśakti and vyā-yāmaśakti are defined (8.120–121).

Three stages of the life cycle are described: bāla, up to sixteen years, dominated by kapha, and extending to the age of thirty years; madhya, dominated by pitta, up to sixty years; jīrṇa, dominated by vāta, up to one hundred years, the maximum life span in the present age of the world (8.122). 126

Prakṛti, etc., vikṛti excepted, may be present in three degrees; the strength of the doṣas in a pathological condition (vikṛti) and of a medicament is of three degrees too (8.123). The characteristics determining the life span will be described in the Indriyasthāna and the jātisūtrīya chapter 127 (8.124).

The divisions of time are dealt with, followed by physiological changes during the three main seasons (hemanta, grīṣma, varṣāḥ) and their consequences for therapy (8.125–127). ¹²⁸ The condition of the patient (āturāvasthā) is, with respect to the period of time, kāla or akāla (8.128).

Pravrtti and upāya, the last two of the ten concepts, are briefly discussed (8.129-130).

The types of examination dealt with in the foregoing find their application (prayojana) in a decision on the course of therapeutic action (pratipatti) (8.132). The way to arrive at a decision when symptoms in favour of a particular line of treatment co-exist with symptoms prohibiting this is discussed (8.134). Indications and contra-indications for treatment with emetics, etc., will be dealt with in the Siddhisthāna (8.133).

Medicinal substances and preparations useful as emetics and purgatives are listed (8.135-136). 129

Drugs used in āsthāpana (non-oleaginous enema) are, due to their large number, divided into six groups (skandha), according to the predominance of one particular taste. The items comprising these groups are enumerated; ¹³⁰ directions for the ways of preparation are added (8.137–146).

3 Vimānasthāna

37

A wise physician should omit a drug, if he considers it to be unsuitable, or add one even if not listed, if it is useful (8.149).

Drugs to be employed in anuvāsana (oleaginous enema) are discussed, in particular the fatty substances in this type of enema (8.150). Drugs useful in śirovirecana (evacuation of the head) are enumerated (8.151).

Chapter 4 Śārīrasthāna

Chapter one, ¹ called katidhāpuruṣīya, is of a philosophical nature. It is mainly concerned with Sārnkhya and Vaiśesika doctrines and their application to medical thought.

The chapter begins with Agniveśa's questions on the puruşa (1.3-15), which are answered by Punarvasu.

The puruṣa (individual) is composed of the five mahābhūtas and cetanā (consciousness) as the sixth principle (dhātu); ² cetanā alone is also called puruṣa (1.16). In addition, the puruṣa can be described as consisting of twenty-four principles (dhātu): ³ manas (mind), the ten indriyas (the functions of the five senses and the five organs of action), ⁴ the five objects of the senses (artha), and the prakṛti (matter), which has eight elements (dhātu) (1.17). ⁵ Manas and buddhi are characterized (1.18–23), ⁶ followed by the ten indriyas (1.24–26), the five mahābhūtas (1.27–31ab), the objects of the senses (1.31cd), buddhi (1.32–34), ⁷ and para (= avyakta; ⁸ 1.35).

Sattva, rajas and tamas are mentioned with regard to the keeping together of the aggregate (rāśi) 9 of twenty-four principles, which constitutes the puruṣa, and with regard to the dissolution of this aggregate, i.e., final emancipation (1.36). 10

The existence of the puruşa (here identical with the ātman), distinct from the body and eternal, and different from the puruşa as an aggregate, is defended against opponents (1.37–62). 11

The eight evolutes of bhūtaprakṛti are the five mahābhūtas, ¹² buddhi, ¹³ avyakta and ahankāra; ¹⁴ the products (vikāra) are sixteen in number: ¹⁵ five organs of sense, five organs of action, mind (manas) and the objects of the five senses (1.63–64). This whole, the avyakta excepted, is known as the field (kṣetra), ¹⁶ while the avyakta is the knower of the field (kṣetrajña) (1.65). The avyakta gives rise to buddhi, ahankāra evolves from buddhi, the five mahābhūtas arise from ahankāra (1.66–67ab). The cycles of evolution and dissolution are described (1.67cd–69). ¹⁷

The characteristics of the ātman (ātmalinga) are enumerated (1.70–72), ¹⁸ which disappear at death (1.73–74). A discourse on the ātman and the manas follows (1.75–85). ¹⁹ A characteristic attributed to the manas is kriyāvattva (activity), while the ātman is the kartar (agent), the manas is unconscious, while the ātman is endowed with consciousness (1.75–76).²⁰

Verses on the duty of a physician to avert future suffering introduce (1.86–94ab)²¹ a more general discussion of upadhā (attachment to the objects of the senses); ²² upadhā is the main cause of suffering, freedom from it eliminates all miseries (1.99cd–97).²³

Causes of misery are dealt with in the next section: dhīvibhraṃśa ²⁴ or buddhivibhraṃśa (impairment of functions of the intellect), dhṛtivibhraṃśa (impairment of the

faculty of keeping one's ground), smṛtivibhraṃśa (impairment of memory), saṃprāpti (the coming to fruition) of kāla (the factor of time), saṃprāpti of karman (past actions), and asātmyārthāgama (unsuitable contact with the objects of the senses) (1.98).²⁵

These subjects are more elaborately discussed. Dhī-, dhṛti- and smṛti vibhraṃśa are subsumed under the term prajñāparādha (errors in judgment) (1.99–109). Natural (svābhāvika) diseases, like old age and death, belong, together with all the other disorders influenced by the time factor, to those caused by kālasaṃprāpti (1.110–155). Karman is the same as daiva (fate); diseases caused by karman are not amenable to treatment and subside only after the effects of karman are exhausted (1.116–117). Unsuitable contact with the objects of the senses (asātmyārthasaṃyoga) is illustrated by means of examples (1.118–128).

The next subjects are sukha (happiness) and duḥkha (suffering), arising from the contact with the sense of touch (sparśa)²⁸ and mind (manas), which leads to attachments (tṛṣṇā) in the form of desire (icchā) and aversion (dveṣa) (1.129–136). Mokṣa (final emancipation), in which all sensations (vedanā) have ceased, is reached by means of yoga (1.137–139).²⁹

The eight wonderful powers (aiśvara bala) of yogins are enumerated: āveśa (entering another's body), cetaso jñānam (knowing another's mind), arthānām chandataḥ kriyā (doing things at will), dṛṣṭi (extraordinary power of vision), śrotra (extraordinary power of hearing), sɪnṛti (extraordinary power of memory), kānti (extraordinary beauty) and istato 'darśanam (invisibility at pleasure) (1.140–141).³⁰

The way leading to mokṣa (final emancipation) and this state itself are described (1.142-155).

Chapter two is called atulyagotrīya.³² This title refers to the rule that marriages³³ between members of the same gotra should not be contracted (2.3).³⁴

This chapter contains Ātre ya's answers to thirty-six questions ³⁵ of Agniveśa which deal with conception, embryology, and a number of more diverse subjects. ³⁶

The male semen (śukra) is said to be composed of four mahābhūtas and to originate from (food containing) the six tastes (2.4).³⁷ The causes of normal conception, foetal development and delivery of the child are mentioned, followed by the causes of abnormalities in these processes (2.6–7).³⁸

A type of pseudo-pregnancy is described, caused by vāyu which obstructs (the flow of) the menstrual blood. ³⁹ When this blood is at last discharged, some people say that because only blood is seen and no trace of a foetus, the latter has been destroyed by an evil spirit (bhūta); ⁴⁰ this view is rejected for the reason that these evil spirits, who roam about during the night, are fond of ojas and would have caused fatal damage to the mother's body too, if they actually had succeeded in gaining access to her body (2.8–10). ⁴¹

Predominance of rakta⁴² at conception produces a female, predominance of śukra (semen) a male child. ⁴³ The genesis of twins⁴⁴ and multiple births ⁴⁵ is explained, followed by the causes of delayed parturition and the differences in twins (2.11–16).

A number of abnormalities of the offspring are accounted for. A child called dviretas 46 is born when the male and female contributions to the bija 47 are equal 48 or

when there is damage to the bīja. ⁴⁹ A pavanendriya is conceived when vāyu harms the seat of śukra of the embryo, ⁵⁰ a saṃskāravāha when anila (= vāta) injures the opening (dvāra) of the receptacle of sperm. ⁵¹ The two (male and female) types of klība ⁵² are born from parents whose procreatory fluids (bīja) are sluggish or deficient, who are weak or do not experience sexual pleasure (harṣa). A vakrin ⁵³ is the result of pratigha ⁵⁴ of the female during intercourse and weakness of the male. An īrṣyārati ⁵⁵ is born from spiteful partners who do not enjoy the act fully. ⁵⁶ A vātikaṣaṇdaka's testicles are seriously damaged by an abnormal condition (doṣa) of vāyu and agmi (2.17–21). ⁵⁷

The signs indicating conception are described, followed by signs pointing to the sex of the child; ⁵⁸ it will resemble the kind of being or person with whom the mother is preoccupied during conception (2.22–25).⁵⁹

A foetus is composed of four mahābhūtas,⁶⁰ each of which derives from father, mother, the mother's food and the ātman;⁶¹ the appearance and other characteristics⁶² of the child are determined by its own karman and that of its parents (2.26–27).⁶³ The causes of abnormalities in the newborn child are discussed (2.29–30).

Transmigration is the next subject discussed. The ātman is described, the entities accompanying it during the cycle of rebirths, ⁶⁴ the factors determining one's physical appearance and mental characteristics, etc. (2.31–38).⁶⁵

The causes of happiness and sorrow (harşa and śoka) are dealt with again. All diseases are brought about by errors in judgment (prajñāparādha), unsuitable (contact with the) objects (of the senses) and transformations caused by time. Fate (daiva) and personal efforts (paurusa) are decisive factors in health and disease (2.39-47).⁶⁶

Chapter three, called khuddikā garbhāvakrāntih, ⁶⁷ is concerned with the descent (avakrānti) of the transmigrating self (jīva) ⁶⁸ into the embryo. The chapter is composed in the form of a dialogue between Ātreya and Bharadvāja. ⁶⁹

Ātreya proposes that the child in the womb is an aggregate (samudāya) of six factors (bhāva) derived from the mother, father, ātman, suitability (sātmya), the nutrient fluid (of the mother) (rasa), and sattva (= manas). This proposition is rejected by Bharadvāja, who gives his arguments, which are refuted by Ātreya (3.3–5).

The constituents of the body deriving from the mother are enumerated: tvac (the layers of the skin), ⁷¹ lohita (blood), māṃsa (muscular tissue), medas (fatty tissue), nabhi (the navel), hṛdaya (heart), kloman, yakṛt (liver), phīhan (spleen), vṛkkas (kidneys), basti (bladder), pūrīṣādhāna (receptacle of faeces), āmāśaya, pakvāśaya, uttaraguda (rectum), adharaguda (anal region), kṣudrāntra (small intestine), sthūlāntra (large intestine), ⁷² vapā, and vapāvahana (omentum). ⁷³ Derived from the father are: keśa (the hairs of the head), śmaśru (the beard hair), nakha (nails), loman (body hair), danta (the teeth), asthi (the bones), sirā (veins), snāyu (the cords, i.e., ligaments, etc.), and dhamanī (arteries). ⁷⁴

Derived from the ātman⁷⁵ are: birth in various successive wombs, āyus (the life span), ātmajñāna (knowledge of the self), manas, indriya (the senses), prāṇa, apāna, preraṇa (setting in motion), dhāraṇa (sustenance), ākṛti (personal appearance), ⁷⁶ svara (voice), varṇa (complexion), sukha (happiness), duhkha (misery), icchā (desire),

dveṣa (aversion), cetanā (consciousness), dhṛti (power of restraint), smṛti (memory), ahaṇkāra (the ego), and prayatna (effort).⁷⁷

Derived from sātmya are: ārogya (health), anālasya (diligence), alolupatva (absence of greed), indriyaprasāda (clarity of the senses), sampad (excellence) of svara (voice), varņa (complexion) and bīja (reproductive factors), and praharṣabhūyastva (abundance of orgastic pleasure). 78

Derived from rasa are: abhinirvṛtti (development) and abhivṛddhi (growth) of the body, prāṇānubandha (maintenance of the link with the vital breaths), tṛpti (satisfaction), puṣṭi (a well-nourished bodily appearance), and utsāha (perseverance).

Derived from sattva are: bhakti (inclination), śīla (conduct), śauca (purity), dveṣa (enmity), smṛti (memory), moha (attachment), tyāga (detachment), mātsarya (envy), śaurya (valour), bhaya (fear), krodha (anger), tandrā (drowsiness), utsāha (perseverance), taikṣṇya (harshness), mārdava (mildness), gāmbhīrya (seriousness), anavasthitatva (instability), and other features to be described in the context of the sattva typology (3.6–13).80

After listening to this exposition by Ātreya, Bharadvāja asks a second set of questions, to which Ātreya replies again. The latter explains why living beings, man included, generate offspring of the same species as the parents, ⁸¹ and why intellectual deficiency is not always of a hereditary character. He also clarifies the connections between the ātman and the senses (3.14–25). ⁸²

Chapter four, called mahatī garbhāvakrāntiḥ, deals with embryology. ⁸³ The subjects discussed in the chapter are enumerated (4.3). The five factors (bhāva) at the origin of the aggregate called garbha (embryo, foetus) are referred to (4.4).

The combination of sukra, sonita and jīva is called garbha (4.5). The garbha is a product of the five mahābhūtas and the seat of consciousness (cetanā), which is regarded as the sixth dhātu (4.6).⁸⁴

Conception is described (4.7) and the processes in its wake. First of all, the cetanādhātu (principle on which potential consciousness is based), ⁸⁵ accompanied by the sattva as its instrument, becomes active in appropriating the qualities (guṇa), ⁸⁶ beginning with (those of) ākāśa, gradually followed by (those of) the other four mahābhūtas; this process requires very little time (4.8). ⁸⁷

In the first month of its development the embryo is a jelly-like (kheta) mixture of all its constituents, ⁸⁸ in the second month it becomes a firm mass (ghana), which is like a bolus (pinda), ⁸⁹ like a muscle (peśī), or like a tumour(arbuda), ⁹⁰ thus indicating that its sex is male, female, or neither male nor female (napuṃsaka). ⁹¹ All the sense organs, the main parts of the body (anga) and the smaller parts, develop in the third month. ⁹²

Derived from ākāśa are śabda (sound), śrotra (the sense of hearing), lāghava (lightness), ⁹³ saukṣmya (subtlety) and viveka (separation); derived from vāyu are sparśa (touch), sparśana (the tactile sense), raukṣya (dryness), preraṇa (setting in motion), ⁹⁴ dhātuvyūhana (disposition and displacement of the dhātus), and ceṣṭālṇ śārīryaḥ (bodily movements); derived from agni (fire) are rūpa (vision), darśana (the sense of seeing), prakāśa (clarity), pakti (digestion and related processes), and auṣṇya (heat); derived from ap (water) are rasa (taste), rasana (the gustatory sense),

śaitya (coldness), mārdava (softness), sneha (unctuousness), and kleda (moisture); derived from pṛthvī (earth) are gandha (smell), ghrāṇa (the olfactory sense), gaurava (heaviness), sthairya (solidity), and mūrti (corporeality) (4.9–12). 95

The parallelism of macrocosm and microcosm is stressed (4.13).

The organs of sense, and the major and minor parts of the body, appear thus simultaneously, apart from those which develop later in life (4.14). Sensations (vedanā) arise in the same period. The foetus begins to quicken (spandate) and to long for whatever was experienced in its previous life. This state is called dvaihṛdayya, because the foetus, being connected with the mother's heart through nutritive vessels, goes through the same desires as its mother. ⁹⁶ For that reason the mother's desires should be duly taken into consideration and satisfied, unless harmful to the child (4.15, 17, 19). ⁹⁷

The signs of pregnancy are described (4.16), ⁹⁸ followed by rules concerning the mother's diet and behaviour (4.18). ⁹⁹

During the fourth month the mass of the foetus increases, which makes the gravida feel heavy. ¹⁰⁰ The muscular tissue and blood develop in the fifth month in particular, which leads to leanness in the mother. The sixth month is characterized by the development of strength and complexion, which results in loss of strength and complexion in the mother. The foetus grows in every respect during the eighth month, which makes the expectant mother exhausted; this month is dangerous because o jas is exchanged between mother and child, leading to fluctuations of mood in both (4.19–24). ¹⁰¹

Then inth and tenth months are the period of parturition. ¹⁰² Factors influencing normal development of the foetus and normal delivery are dealt with (4.25–29). ¹⁰³

Disorders of the foetus on account of damage to the female procreatory fluid (śonita) and the uterus are discussed: affections of parts of the body derived from the mother, sterility (vandhyātva), premature death, ¹⁰⁴ and the condition of being a vārttā. ¹⁰⁵ The same disorders arise from damage to particular parts of the male seed, with this difference that not a vārttā, but a tṛṇaputrika may be born ¹⁰⁶ (4.30–31).

The last section of the chapter is devoted to a character typology. Human beings are of three main character types (sattva): śuddha, rājasa and tāmasa. ¹⁰⁷ Though the variations in character are innumerable, a number of types are described in more detail.

The seven śuddha types are: brāhma, ¹⁰⁸ ārṣa, aindra, yāmya, vāruṇa, kaubera, and gāndharva; the six tāmasa types are: āsura, rākṣasa, ¹⁰⁹ paiśāca, ¹¹⁰ sārpa, praita, and śākuna; the three tāmasa types are: pāśava, ¹¹¹ mātsya and vānaspatya (4.36–40). ¹¹²

Chapter five, called purusavicaya, is concerned with the parallelism between macrocosm and microcosm and with the way leading to final emancipation (moksa).

The parallels between the cosmos (loka) and the person (puruṣa) are discussed first. The cosmos is an aggregate of six dhātus: the five mahābhūtas and the unmanifest (avyakta) brahman. The purusa is similar to the cosmos in this respect (5.4).

The parallelism is elucidated in more detail. The mahābhūtas (earth, etc.) and brahman are represented in the puruṣa by mūrti (corporeality), kleda (moisture), abhisaɪntāpa (heat), prāṇa, suṣiratva (hollowness), and the antarātman. The vibhūti¹¹³ of brahman is represented by Prajāpati, ¹¹⁴ the vibhūti of the antarātman by sattva (= manas). Indra corresponds to the ahaɪnkāra, ¹¹⁵ Āditya¹¹⁶ to ādāna (absorption), ¹¹⁷

Rudra to roṣa (anger), Soma to prasāda (serenity), the Vasus¹¹⁸ to sukha (happiness), the Aśvins to kānti (beauty), Marut to utsāha (perseverance), the Viśvedevāḥ¹¹⁹ to the sense organs and their objects; ¹²⁰ darkness (tamas) corresponds to ignorance (moha), light to (spiritual) knowlege (jīāna). The four ages (yuga) of the world correspond to childhood, adulthood, old age and disease (5.5).

The purpose of this exposition on the parallels between loka¹²¹ and puruşa is that it leads to true knowledge (satyā buddhilþ), consisting of the realization that cosmos and self are identical¹²² (5.7). Attachment (pravṛtti) is the main cause of all kinds of affliction (upaplava), while detachment (nivṛtti) leads to their cessation (uparama). ¹²³ This true knowledge is based on the insight that loka and purusa are identical (5.8).

The sources of attachment are dealt with: moha (ignorance), icchā (desire), dveṣa (aversion) and karman (action). Attachment gives rise to ahaṃkāra (experiencing the own ego as a glorious entity), saṅga (actions not leading to emancipation), saṃśaya (doubt), abhisaṃplava (considering the self to be identical with the body), abhyavapāta (self-based attachment), vipratyaya (considering something wholesome as unwholesome, etc., and the other way round), aviśeṣa (lack of discrimination), and anupāya (employment of unsuitable means) (5.10). ¹²⁴ Detachment is apavarga (emancipation), moksa (freedom from bondage), etc. (5.11).

The means to be employed for the ascent (udayana) leading to moksa (5.12) and the achievement of the aim (5.13–24) are described

Chapter six, called śarīravicaya, deals with a number of subjects.

Its first part is concerned with imbalance of the dhātus (= doṣas) and restoration of their equilibrium. A dhātu increases by the use of substances with properties similar to those of the dhātu, while it is subject to decrease through the use of substances with contrary properties. Treatment of imbalances of the dhātus is based on this principle (6.3–11). The twenty properties (guṇa) of the dhātus are enumerated in this section (6.10). 125

Factors leading to bodily growth, increase of strength and transformation of the food are dealt with (6.12–16). The constituents of the body are divided into two groups: mala and prasāda. The malas (waste products) are the various secretions (upadeha) which come out of the orifices of the body, ¹²⁶ bodily elements (dhātu) which have been subject to excessive pāka (paripakva), ¹²⁷ excited (prakupita) doṣas, ¹²⁸ and other substances harmful to the body. The entities called prasāda are the (normal) seven bodily elements ¹²⁹ (6.17).

The three doṣas, when corrupted (duṣṭa), are the agents causing corruption of all the constituents mentioned, because it is in their nature (svabhāva) to do so (6.18).

The second part is devoted to questions pertaining to embryology. On the important problem as to which part of the embryo arises first, conflicting views have been expressed by sages who composed (medical) treatises (sūtrakṛt). Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja is of the opinion that the head arises first; it is the heart according to Kānkāyana, the physician from Bāhlīka, the navel according to Bhadrakāpya, the pakvāśaya and guda (rectum and anus) 130 according to Bhadraśaunaka, hands and feet according to Baḍiśa, the organs of sense according to Janaka from Videha; the question cannot be answered,

because observation is impossible, according to Mārīci Kaśyapa; all the organs appear at the same time, according to Dhanvantari. Atreya agrees with Dhanvantari, but not without drawing attention to the importance of the heart as the root (mūla) of all the parts of the body and the seat (adhiṣṭāna) of some other constituents (bhāva)¹³¹ (6.21). 132

The foetus lies in the womb (kukṣi) with its face towards the mother's back, its head upwards and limbs folded. 133

In the early stage of its development, the foetus is entirely dependent for its maintenance on upasneha (transudation) ¹³⁴ and upasveda (conduction of heat) ¹³⁵ from the mother's body. Later, upasneha is effected partly through the pores of the hairs (romakūpa) and partly through the vessels in the umbilical cord (nābhinā yayana). This cord is attached to the navel at one end, to the placenta (aparā) ¹³⁶ at the other end, and the placenta is connected with the mother's heart, which fills it with nourishment (6.23). ¹³⁷

Normally, the child turns its head downwards when the time of delivery is approaching (6.24).

Disorders of the newly-born child which are not brought about by the dosas find their origin in the wrath of the gods and of other beings (6.27).

The last section of the chapter is concerned with timely and untimely death (kālākālamṛtyu). ¹³⁸ The normal life span in the present age is said to be one hundred years (6.28-29).

Chapter seven, called śarīrasaṃkhyā, ¹³⁹ deals with the parts of the body and their respective numbers.

Six layers of skin (tvac) are distinguished: ¹⁴⁰ udakadharā; ¹⁴¹ asṛgdharā; ¹⁴² the third layer, in which sidhma ¹⁴³ and kilāsa ¹⁴⁴ have their origin; ¹⁴⁵ the fourth layer, from which dadru and kuṣṭha ¹⁴⁶ originate; ¹⁴⁷ the fifth layer, which is the seat of alajī and vidradhi; ¹⁴⁸ the sixth layer, which, when cut, causes fainting, ¹⁴⁹ is the seat of a type of blackish red boils (arūṃṣi) ¹⁵⁰ (7.4). ¹⁵¹

The body is composed of six main parts: the two arms (bāhu), the two legs (sakthi), head and neck, and trunk (antarādhi) (7.5). 152

The bones, together with the sockets ($ul\bar{u}khala$) of the teeth and the nails, are three hundred and sixty in number (7.6). ¹⁵³

These bones consist of: thirty-two teeth, thirty-two sockets of the teeth (dantolūkhala), ¹⁵⁴ twenty nails, sixty phalanxes in fingers and toes (pāṇipādāṅgulyasthi), ¹⁵⁵ twenty metacarpal and metatarsal bones (pāṇipādaśalākā), ¹⁵⁶ four bases of the metacarpal and metatarsal bones (pāṇipādaśalākādhiṣthāna), ¹⁵⁷ two bones in the heels (pāṛṣṇi), ¹⁵⁸ four bones in the ankles (gulpha), ¹⁵⁹ two wrist-bones (maṇika), ¹⁶⁰ four bones in the forearms (aratni), four bones in the lower legs (jaṇghā), ¹⁶¹ two bones in the knees (jāṇu), ¹⁶² two kneecaps (jānukapālikā), ¹⁶³ two long bones in the thighs (ūrunalaka), two long bones in the upper arms (bāhunalaka), two bones in the shoulders (aṃsa), ¹⁶⁴ two shoulder blades (aṃsaphalaka), ¹⁶⁵ two clavicles (akṣaka), ¹⁶⁶ one breastbone (jatru), ¹⁶⁷ two bones in the palate (tālukā), ¹⁶⁸ two flat pelvic bones (śroniphalaka), ¹⁶⁹ one public bone (bhagāsthi), ¹⁷⁰ forty-five bones in the

back (pṛṣṭhagatāsthi), ¹⁷¹ fifteen bones in the neck (grīvā), ¹⁷² fourteen bones in the front part of the chest (uras), ¹⁷³ twenty-four ribs (parśuka), ¹⁷⁴ twenty-four sockets (sthālaka) of the ribs, ¹⁷⁵ twenty-four tubercles (arbuda) for the sthālakas, ¹⁷⁶ one jaw bone (hanvasthi), two connecting bones at the roots of the jaw bone (hanumū-labandhana), ¹⁷⁷ one bone constituting the nose (nāsikā), the prominent parts of the cheeks (gaṇḍakūṭa), and the forehead (lalāṭa), ¹⁷⁸ two bones in the temples (śankha), ¹⁷⁹ and four flat skull bones (śirahkapāla). ¹⁸⁰

There are five seats of the senses: skin, tongue, nose, eyes and ears; five senses (buddhīndriya): the tactile, gustatory, olfactory, visual and auditory sense; five motor organs (kamendriya): hands, feet, anus (pāyu), genitals (upastha) and tongue (7.7). There is one heart, which is the seat of consciousness (cetanādhātu) (7.8). ¹⁸¹

There are ten seats (āyatana) of the prāṇas: head, throat, heart, navel, anal region, bladder, ojas, semen, blood and muscular tissue (7.9). 182

The viscera (koṣṭhāngāni) are fifteen in number: navel (nābhi), heart (hṛdaya), kloman, ¹⁸³ liver (yakṛt), ¹⁸⁴ spleen (plīhan), the two kidneys (vṛkka), ¹⁸⁵ urinary bladder (basti), receptacle of the faeces (purīṣādhāra), ¹⁸⁶ receptacle of undigested food (āmāśaya), ¹⁸⁷ receptacle of digested food (pakvāśaya), ¹⁸⁸ the upper part of the rectum (uttaraguda), the lower part of the rectum (adharaguda), ¹⁸⁹ small intestine (kṣudrāntra), large intestine (sthūlāntra), ¹⁹⁰ and omentum (vapāvahana) ¹⁹¹ (7.10). ¹⁹²

The minor parts (pratyanga) of the body, into which the main parts are subdivided, are fifty-six in number: ¹⁹³ two janghāpindikās (calves), ¹⁹⁴ two ūrupindikās, ¹⁹⁵ the two parts called sphic (buttock), ¹⁹⁶ two vṛṣaṇas (testicles), ¹⁹⁷ the śephas (penis), ¹⁹⁸ two ukhās (armpits), ¹⁹⁹ two vaikṣaṇas (groins), ²⁰⁰ two kukundaras, ²⁰¹ one bastišīṛṣa, ²⁰² one udara (abdomen), ²⁰³ two stanas (breasts), ²⁰⁴ two parts called śleṣmabhū, ²⁰⁵ two bāhupiṇḍikās, ²⁰⁶ one cibuka (chin), ²⁰⁷ two oṣṭhas (lips), ²⁰⁸ two sṛkkṣṇīs (corners of the mouth), ²⁰⁹ two dantaveṣṭakas (the gums of the two halves of the mouth), ²⁰⁰ one tālu (palate), ²¹¹ one galaśuṇḍikā (uvula), ²¹² two upajihvikās, ²¹³ one go jihvikā (tongue), ²¹⁴ two gaṇḍas (cheeks), ²¹⁵ two kaṛṇaśaṣkulikās, ²¹⁶ two kaṛṇaputrakas, ²¹⁷ two akṣikūṭas, ²¹⁸ four parts called akṣivartınan (the eyelids), ²¹⁹ two akṣikanīnikās, ²²⁰ two parts called bhrū (the eyebrow), ²²¹ one avaṭu, ²²² four hṛdayas of hands and feet (the palms and soles) ²²³ (7.11), ²²⁴

The nine orifices (chidra) are nine in number: seven in the head and two below (7.12).²²⁵

The parts so far mentioned are visible; the remaining ones are invisible and their number has to be deduced by reasoning (7.13).

The snāyus are nine hundred in number, ²²⁶ the sirās ²²⁷ seven hundred, ²²⁸ the dhamarīs ²²⁹ two hundred, ²³⁰ the pesīs (muscles) four hundred, ²³¹ the marmans (vulnerable spots) one hundred and seven, ²³² the sandhis (junctures) ²³³ two hundred. ²³⁴ The terminal openings (mukhāgra) of the minute branches of sirās and dhamanīs, as well as the hairs of scalp, face and body are 29,956 in number (7.14). ²³⁵

Bodily constituents, measurable in anjalis, ²³⁶ are dealt with next. The standard quantities are given; the figures are reached by reasoning (tarka). ²³⁷ Quantities mentioned are: ten anjali of watery fluid (udaka), ²³⁸ nine of rasa as a fluid resulting from the digestion of the food, eight of blood, seven of faeces, six of kapha, five

of pitta, four of urine, three of vasā, two of medas, one of majjā; half an añjali of mastiska (brain tissue), ²³⁹ śukra (semen) and ślaismika ojas²⁴⁰ (7.15).

Components and functions of the body which are regarded as mainly connected with one of the five mahābhūtas are enumerated (7.16).²⁴¹

Prthivī (earth) is predominantly present in parts which are sthūla (gross), sthira (firm), murtimant (endowed with a particular form), guru (heavy), khara (rough), and kathina (hard); it also predominates in the nakhas (nails), asthis (bones), dantas (teeth), mārnsa (muscular tissue), carman (the outer layer of the skin), 242 varcas (faeces), keśa (hairs of the scalp), śmaśru (beard hair), loman (body hair), the kandarās, ²⁴³ gandha (smell) and ghrāna (the olfactory sense). Ap (water) predominates in parts which are drava (fluid), sara (mobile), manda (sluggish), snigdha (oleaginous), mrdu (soft) and picchila (mucilaginous); it also predominates in rasa (nutrient fluid), rudhira (blood), vasā (muscle fat), kapha, pitta, mūtra (urine), sveda (sweat), rasa (taste), and rasana (the gustatory sense). Agni (fire) predominates in pitta, ūsman (heat), bhās (lustre), rūpa (vision) and darśana (the visual sense). Vāyu (air) predominates in ucchvāsa (exspiration), prasvāsa (inspiration), unmesa (opening of the eyes), mmesa (closing of the eyes), ākuñcana (contraction), prasārana (extension), gamana (locomotion), prerana (impelling), dhārana (retention), sparša (touch), and sparšana (the tactile sense). Antariksa (= ākāśa) predominates in vivikta parts (interstices), vāc (speech), large and minute vessels (srotas), śabda (sound), and śrotra (the auditory sense) (7.16).

With respect to their division into atoms (paramāṇu), the component parts of the body are countless, because these atoms are present in very large numbers, of very minute size and imperceptible. Conjunction (saṃyoga) and disjunction (vibhāga) of the atoms is caused by vāyu and the own nature (svabhāva) of karman (movement) (7.17).

The view that the composite body is one whole leads to attachment (sanga), the insight that its parts are separate to final emancipation (apavarga).

Chapter eight, called jātisūtrīya,²⁴⁴ deals with procreation, the management of pregnancy and delivery,²⁴⁵ the care of the woman in childbed,²⁴⁶ the care of the newborn child, etc.

The topics disussed first are: rules for sexual intercourse (8.3–8);²⁴⁷ rules and rituals ensuring desired characteristics ²⁴⁸ in the son to be conceived (8.9–14).²⁴⁹ Apart from these behavioural rules and rituals, the complexion of a son will be determined by the relative preponderance of the mahābhūtas; tejas (fire), when associated with udaka (water) and antarikṣa (= ākāśa), furthers a fair (avadhūta) complexion, when associated with pṛthivī (earth) and vāyu (air) a dark (kṛṣṇa) complexion, while balance of the five gives rise to a śyāma²⁵⁰ colour of the skin (8.15).²⁵¹ Factors influencing the sattva of the child are added (8.16).

The pumsavana ritual, ²⁵² aiming at the conception of a son, ²⁵³ is described ²⁵⁴ (8.19), ²⁵⁵ followed by measures promoting the maintenance of the pregnancy (garbhasthāpana; 8.20). Factors which are harmful to the unborn child (garbhopaghātakara) and may lead to its death, to abortion, particular defects, and diseases are discussed (8.21). ²⁵⁶

Rules for the management of pregnancy are dealt with (8.22).

The next section is concerned with disorders occurring during pregnancy and their treatment (8.23–31).²⁵⁷

Disorders described are: bleeding (puṣpadarśana), bleeding associated with āma, upaviṣṭaka (prolongation of the gestation period), nāgodara (death of the child within the womb, followed by withering), udāvarta, vibandha (chronic obstipation), and death of the unborn child (mṛtagarbhā); extraction (haraṇa) of a dead child (called a śalya) by a specialist (garbhahartar) is discussed.²⁵⁸

The monthly regimen during pregnancy is dealt with.²⁵⁹ Ātreya rejects an opinion current among women and gives his view on the development of striae (kikkisa);²⁶⁰ he also refutes Bhadrakāpya's thesis on the origin of tawniness (paingalya) in the child (8.32),²⁶¹

The construction of the birth-chamber (sūtikāgāra), its equipment, the way it should be occupied by the expectant mother (8.33–35),²⁶² the signs heralding parturition, and the management of delivery ²⁶³ are discussed (8.36–40),²⁶⁴ followed by the measures to be taken when the placenta (aparā) does not come out spontaneously²⁶⁵ (8.41).²⁶⁶

The care for the child immediately after birth is described (8.42–43);²⁶⁷ the cutting of the umbilical cord (nāḍīkalpana);²⁶⁸ the treatment when it becomes inflamed; the disorders resulting from improper handling of the cord: āyāmottuṇ�ikā (lengthwise swelling), vyāyāmottuṇ�itā (breadthwise swelling), piṇḍalikā (a circular swelling), vināmikā (swelling of the periphery and depression of the centre), and vijṛmbhikā (a gradual increase in size); ²⁶⁹ the treatment of these disorders (8.42–45).²⁷⁰

The birth-ceremony (Jātakarman)²⁷¹ should then be performed,²⁷² the first feeding should take place (8.46),²⁷³ and measures should be taken which protect mother and child (8.47).²⁷⁴ The regimen of a woman who has recently given birth to a child is described; great care is necessary, since disorders arising in this period are grave, curable with difficulty or incurable (8.48–49).²⁷⁵

The naming ceremony $(n\bar{a}makarana)^{276}$ is described $(8.50).^{277}$ After this ceremony, the child should be examined with a view to determining its life span ($\bar{a}yus$). A long list is given of characteristics indicating a long life $(8.51).^{278}$

The next subject is the wet-nurse (dhātrī): desirable qualities of a wet-nurse as a person, desirable characteristics of her breasts and breastmilk are dealt with (8.52–54).²⁷⁹ Disorders of the breastmilk (kṣīradoṣa) by vāta, pitta, kapha are described, ²⁸⁰ followed by measures purifying the milk (kṣīraviśodhana) and promoting its production (kṣīrajanana) (8.55–57). ²⁸¹ The proper way of breastfeeding is described (8.58). ²⁸²

The chapter ends with prescriptions for the arrangement of the nursery (kumārā-gāra), amulets (maṇi) to be worn by the child, ²⁸³ toys (krī danaka), ²⁸⁴ the behaviour of adults towards the child, ²⁸⁵ and the general treatment of children's diseases (8.59–66).

Chapter 5 Indriyasthāna

The Indriyasthāna 1 is concerned with signs foretelling death. 2

Chapter one,³ called varṇasvarīya, begins with enumerating the factors to be taken into consideration by a physician wishing to determine the remaining span of life of a patient.⁴ The list of these factors, comprising forty-seven items, covers all the topics discussed in the Indriyasthāna (1.3).⁵

Some factors, which do not relate to the patient as a person, 6 should be judged by means of authoritative statements (upadeśa) and yukti, while the factors relating to the normal condition (prakrti) of the patient and morbid changes in that condition (vikrti) should be carefully observed (1.4).

The normal condition of a patient depends on his birth within a particular social group (jāti), his family lineage (kula), his place of residence (deśa), the period of time (kāla), his age (vayas), and individual characteristics (1.5).

Morbid changes are of three types: caused by bodily marks (lakṣaṇanimitta), caused by aetiological factors (lakṣyanimitta) and caused by factors resembling aetiological factors (nimittānurūpa) (1.6).

The first type consists of changes, appearing at their appropriate time, which are the result of bodily marks, acquired by an individual due to fate (daiva); ⁷ the second type is caused by factors discussed under the nidāna of the various diseases; the third type consists of changes which appear without any apparent cause (animitta) and are indicative of the remaining measure of the patient's life span. The changes of the third type will be more elaborately discussed (1.7). ⁸

The normal complexion (varṇa) is of four main types: ⁹ kṛṣṇa (black), śyāma (brown), ¹⁰ śyāmāvadāta, and avadāta (fair); ¹¹ other shades should be learnt from the experts (1.8). ¹² Abnormal colours of the complexion are: nīla (dark blue), śyāva (grey), ¹³ tāmra (coppery red), harita (yellowish green), and śukla (white) (1.9). ¹⁴

A series of premonitory signs (arista), relating to a patient's complexion and indicating a fatal outcome, are described (1.10-13).

Normal types of voice (svara) are then enumerated, followed by abnormal types and inauspicious signs relating to a patient's voice (1.14-15). The chapter ends with verses on characteristics of the complexion and the voice which point to a fatal course of the illness (1.17-25). ¹⁶

Chapter two, called puspitaka, compares the connection between a fatal sign (arista) and death with that between a flower (puspa) and the fruit it produces (2.3–5). ¹⁷ Pa-

tients exhibiting such signs are therefore called phspita. 18

Aristas relating to the smell emitted by a patient's body are described (2.8–16), ¹⁹ followed by those relating to its taste, as may be dêduced from its attractiveness to various kinds of insects (2.17–22).

Chapter three, called parimarśanīya, is about fatal signs to be ascertained by means of palpation (parimarśana, sparśa), followed by some other categories of ariṣṭas.

Rules for palpation and inauspicious abnormalities found by means of this procedure are described (3.4–5).²⁰

The physician should also examine the patient's way of breathing (ucchvāsa), the region of the carotid arteries (manyā), the teeth, eyelashes, eyes, hair of the head and body, belly, nails and fingers. Fatal signs relating to breathing and signs occurring in the mentioned parts of the body are described (3.6).

Chapter four, called indriyānīka, ²¹ is concerned with ariṣṭas pertaining to the functions of the senses; this category has to be determined by means of inference (anumāna) (4.3–4).²² Many fatal signs of this type are described.²³

Chapter five, called pūrvarūpīya, ²⁴ deals with fatil prodromes (pūrvarūpa).²⁵ In general, presence of the complete set of prodromes of a particular disease indicates a fatal outcome (5.3–5). Prodromes, pointing to the severe character of a series of particular diseases, are described. Dreams (svapna) form a conspicuous element among these fatal signs (5.6–25). ²⁶

Numerous dreams auguring imminent death for great anguish (dārurlāḥ svapnāḥ) are described (5.27-39). ²⁷ Healthy persons, having the same dreams, may sometimes escape this fate (5.40). The dāruṇa dreams are explained as having an organic basis (5.40-41). ²⁸

Seven types of dreams are distinguished: based on visual perceptions (dṛṣṭa), based on auditory perceptions (śruta), perceptions by other senses (anubhūta), ²⁹ based on wishes (pṛāṛthita), based on imagination (kalpita), pointing to future events (bhāvika), and based on disturbances of the doṣas (doṣaja) (4.43). The first five types have no effects (aphala); ³⁰ the same applies to dreams experienced during day-sleep and to those which are very short or very long ³¹ (5.44). ³² Dreams occurring during the first part of the night have weak results (5.45ab). ³³ The effect of a dream becomes operative at once if one does not sleep again after dreaming it (5.45 d). ³⁴ The prognostic meaning of an inauspicious dream is annulled when it is followed by one to be regarded as auspicious (5.46). ³⁵

Chapter six, called katamāniśarīrīya, describes signs which should make the physician decide to give up treatment. 36

Chapter seven, called pannarūpīya,³⁷ deals with the prognostic significance of a patient's chāyā, praticchāyā and prabhā (7.3–17), followed by various ariṣṭas (7.18–31). Individuals are of three types according to their measurement: short, medium

and tall,³⁸ of two types according to their shape: balanced (suṣama) and imbalanced (visama) (7.8).

The praticchāyā (reflected image) is to be assessed according to its measurement (pramāṇa) and shape (saṛṇṣthāṇa), while the chāyā (shadow) depends on a person's complexion (yaṛṇa) ³⁹ and lustre (prabhā) (7.9). ⁴⁰

Chāyā is of five types, according to the predominance of one of the five mahābhūtas; the chāyā dominated by vāyu is inauspicious, the other four types are auspicious (7.10-13). 41

Prabhā is fiery (taijasī) in nature and of seven types: red, yellow, white, grey (śyāva), yellowish green (harita), pale (pāṇdura) and dark (asita); auspicous kinds of prabhā are those which are vikāsin, ⁴² snigdha (glossy) and vipula; ⁴³ inauspicious are those which are dry (rūksa), dirty (malina) and contracted (samksipta) (7.14–15).

Chāyā makes varṇa indistinct (ākrāmati), whereas (pra)bhā enhances (prakāśin) it; chāyā can be observed from nearby, (pra)bhā from a distance (7.16–17).

Various aristas are described in the second part of the chapter (7.18-31).

Chapter eight, called avākśirasīya, 44 is concerned with ariṣṭas indicating the advent of death within a few days. 45

Chapter nine, called yasyaśyāvanimittīya, describes a number of aristas. 46

This chapter contains some verses of particular interest; the survival of a weak patient who gets rid of his disease all of a sudden is doubtful according to \bar{A} treya; if his relations insist on it, a physician may prescribe meat soup to such a patient; his life is in danger if he does not improve after a month on this diet (9.15–17).

Chapter ten, 48 called sadyomaranīya, describes signs indicating sudden death. 49

Chapter eleven, called aṇujyotīya, ⁵⁰ deals with ariṣṭas foreboding death within a year (11.3-6), six months (11.7-9), one month (11.10-12), or an unspecified period of time (11.13-26).

An arista is defined as a sign produced by dosas which have transcended the range of treatment and pervaded the whole body (11.29).⁵¹

Chapter twelve, called gomayacūrnīya, begins with a short series of ariṣṭas (12.3–8).⁵² It proceeds with omina relating to the messenger (dūta) sent to the physician by the patient or his relatives (12.9–24),⁵³ omina ⁵⁴ (autpātika) observed by the physician on his way to the patient (12.25–31)⁵⁵ and in the patient's domestic surroundings (12.32–39). ⁵⁶

The characteristics of a dying patient are described (12.43-61). The physician should not disclose to a patient or his relatives that he has observed the signs of imminent death without having been requested to do so; he should withhold this information even on request if it is liable to cause harm (12.62-64). A physician who has noticed signs indicative of recovery should certainly announce this (12.65-66).

Auspicious omina relating to the messenger and to occurrences on the way to the patient and in his house are dealt with in the last part of the chapter (12.67–88). 57

Chapter 6 Cikitsāsthāna

Chapter one, divided into four parts (pāda), deals with rasāyana.2,

Part one, called abhayāmalakīya, describes rasāyanas containing abhayā (= harītakī) and āmalakī.

Synonyms of therapy (bheṣaja, cikitsita, etc.) are enumerated (1.3-4a). Therapy is of two kinds: promoting vitality (ūrjas) in the healthy and dispelling disease (roganud) in patients (ārta); its opposite, adverse treatment (abheṣaja), produces its effects for a short or a long time³ (1.4b-5ab). Treatment ainning at the promotion of vitality consists of rasāyana and vājīkaraṇa; both types of therapy mentioned are, however, useful for these two purposes (1.5cd-6). ARasāyana and vājīkaraṇa are described according to the effects produced by them (1.7-12).

Rasāyana treatment⁵ is of two types: kuṭīprāveśika (inside a cottage constructed for the purpose)⁶ and vātātapika (in the open air).⁷ The cottage (kuṭī) and the preparatory stages of the treatment are described (1.16–28).

The properties and actions of harītakī are discussed; ⁸ āmalakī has the same properties and actions, apart from its vīrya, which is the opposite of that of harītakī ⁹ (1.29–37). The fruits of both plants should be collected in the Himālayas (1.38–40).

Six rasāyana formulations are described: two kinds of brāhmarasāyana, ¹⁰ cyavanaprāśa, ¹¹ āmalakarasāyana, ¹² and two kinds of harītakīyoga. These preparations made the Vaikhānasas, ¹³ Vālakhilyas, ¹⁴ Cyavana, and other sages attain a very long span of life, free from disease and decrepitude (1.41–77).

Rasāyana preparations, comparable to the amrta of the gods and the sudhā of the serpents, enabled the great sages to live, endowed with youthful vigour, for thousands of years. Someone who methodically employs rasāyana does not only live for a long time, but he also acquires the status of the divine sages and is finally united with the indestructible brahman (1.78–80).

Part two of chapter one, called prāṇakāmīya, begins with praising the effects of rasāyana treatment (2.3).

Several formulations are described: āmalakaghṛta (2.4–6), āmalakāvaleha (2.7), āmalakacūrṇa (2.8), vi�angāvaleha (2.9), ¹⁵ a second āmalakāvaleha (2.10), nāgabalārasāyana (2.11), ¹⁶ a recipe without a name (2.12), bhallātakakṣīra (2.13), ¹⁷ bhallātakakṣaudra (2.14), and bhallātakataila (2.15). ¹⁸

Ten forms of bhallātaka preparations are employed: bhallātakaghṛta, ¹⁹ -kṣīra, -kṣaudra, -guda, ²⁰ -yūsa, -taila, -palala, -saktu, -lavana, and -tarpana (2.16). ²¹

Part three, called karapracitya, describes sixteen rasāyana formulations (3.66). It begins with preparations of āmalakī fruits, culled by hand (karapracita). The first

of these is āmalakāyasabrāhmarasāyana, deriving from Brahmā, and successfully used by Vasistha, Kaśyapa, Angiras, Jamadagni, Bharadvāja, Bhrgu, and other ancient sages (3.3–6). The proper way of having recourse to rasāyana, illustrated by the behaviour of the great sages, is discussed (3.7–8). The kevalāmalakarasāyana is dealt with (3.9–14).

Other rasāyana preparations described are: lauhādirasāyana (3.15–23), ²² aindra rasāyana (3.24–29), ²³ a series of four medhyarasāyanas ²⁴ (3.30–31), ²⁵ pippalīrasāyana (3.32–35), ²⁶ pippalīvardhamāna (3.36–40), ²⁷ and four kinds of triphalārasāyana ²⁸ (3.41–47).

The properties, actions and uses of śilā jatu ²⁹ are discussed, a substance that cures all diseases. Its potency is enhanced (vīryotkarṣa) by steeping (bhāvanā ³⁰, ālodana) this substance in various fluids. Four varieties are distinguished, originating from gold, silver, copper and iron ores, ³¹ to be used specifically against disorders caused by vāta and pitta, kapha and pitta, kapha, and all three doṣas. The variety deriving from iron ore is preferable for rasāyana purposes (3.48–65). ³²

Part four, called āyurvedasamutthānīya, opens with a second story on the divine origin of āyurveda.³³

This narrative introduces a group of sages, consisting of Agastya, Angiras, Asita, Atri, Bhṛgu, Gautama, Kaśyapa, Pulastya, Vāmadeva, Vasisṭha, and others. The health of these sages had deteriorated due to their adoption of the way of living customary in cities and villages. ³⁴ Being no longer able to perform their duties, they repaired to the Himālayas, where Indra transmitted to them the āyurveda (4,3-5). ³⁵

Indra makes the sages acquainted with a series of vitalizing (jīvanīya) plants, ³⁶ growing in the Himālayas, which, when taken with milk for six months, bestow a maximum life span (paramāyus); the plants mentioned by name are: aindrī, brāhɪrū, ³⁷ payasyā, kṣīrapuṣpī, śrāvaṇī, mahāśrāvaṇī, śatāvarī, ³⁸ vidārī, ³⁹ jīvantī, ⁴⁰ punarnavā, nāgabalā, ⁴¹ sthirā, vacā, ⁴² chattrā, aticchattrā, medā, and mahāmedā (indrokta rasāvana: 4.6), ⁴³

Indra proceeds with his teachings on rasāyana by describing nine divine herbs (divyauṣadhi): brahmasuvarcalā, ādityapamī (also called sūryakāntā), ⁴⁴ aśvabalā, kāṣṭhagodhā, sarpanāmā, soma, padmā, ajā (also called ajaśrigī), and mīlā, ⁴⁵ and the use made of these herbs in a course of treatment that results in making one the equal of the gods in outward appearance and that provides a life span of a thousand years (4.7). ⁴⁶ This treatment, perfectly suitable only to sages with a controlled mind (kṛtātman), will enable them to perform all their duties; vāṇaprasthas⁴⁷ and gṛhasthas⁴⁸ with a sufficiently disciplined mind (niyatātman) may also resort to it (4.8–10). The same herbs, when growing in another habitat than the Himālayas, have a less powerful effect.

Persons not belonging to the mentioned categories are advised to resort to other rasāyana procedures (4.11-12). ⁴⁹

Such a procedure, of a complex nature, is described; the groups of ten drugs each which are balya, jīvanīya, bṛṇhaṇīya and vayaḥsthāpana, 50 together with many others, among which a series of powdered (cūrṇa) inorganic substances, are employed in it (4.13-26).

Persons who are wealthy, healthy and self-controlled are suitable to the kutīpraveśa

type of rasāyana; others should make use of the sauryamārutika (= vātātapika) type (4.27-29).⁵¹

The requirements to be met for a successful use of rasāyana are discussed in detail (4.30–38).⁵²

A qualified physician (prāṇācārya)⁵³ deserves the same honour as that bestowed on the Aśvins by Indra. The feats of the Aśvins⁵⁴ are referred to: they restored the cutoff head of the sacrifice, treated Pūṣan whose teeth had fallen out, cured Bhaga who had lost his eyesight, Indra when his arms were stiff, and Śītāṃśu (= Candra), when he suffered from rājayakṣman; they made the old and decrepit Cyavana young again, etc. (4.39–44). The Aśvins are therefore honoured by Indra and other gods, and the twice-born offer to them grahas, ⁵⁵ stotras, ⁵⁶ various oblations (havis), and smoke-coloured sacrificial animals (4.45–49). ⁵⁷ Physicians should be honoured in the same way as the Aśvins (4.50–51).

A physician who has completed a full course of training obtains a sattva (mental disposition) of the brāhma or ārṣa type⁵⁸ and is called thrice-born (trija)⁵⁹ (4.52-54). The ethical principles he should adhere to are outlined (4.55-62).

Chapter two, on vājīkaraņa (aphrodisiacs),60 is divided into four parts (pāda).

Part one, called saṃyogaśaramūlīya, begins with the praise of aphrodisiacs, a description of the type of woman most attractive to a man, and the merits of having a numerous offspring (1.3–24ab).

Fifteen ⁶¹ aphrodisiac formulations are discussed, many of which contain substances of animal origin. These recipes are: bṛṃḥaṇīguṭikā (1.24cd-33ab), vājī-karaṇaghṛta (1.33cd-38ab), ⁶² four varieties of vājīkaraṇapiṇḍarasa (1.38cd-41), ⁶³ vṛṣyamāḥṣarasa (1.42-43), ⁶⁴ four different varieties of vṛṣyarasa (1.44-45), ⁶⁵ vṛṣyamāṇṣa (1.46), ⁶⁶ vṛṣyamāṣayoga (1.47), ⁶⁷ vṛṣyakukkuṭamāṇṣaprayoga (1.48), ⁶⁸ and vṛṣyāṇ�arasa (1.49-50ab). ⁶⁹

Part two, called āsiktakṣīrika, deals with a series of eight aphrodisiac recipes: saṣṭikādiguṭikā (2.3-9),⁷⁰ vṛṣyapūpalikādiyoga (2.10-13),⁷¹ apatyakarasvarasa (2.14-17),⁷² vṛṣyakṣīra (2.18-20),⁷³ vṛṣyaghṛta (2.21-23),⁷⁴ vṛṣyadadhirasaprayoga (2.24-26), vṛṣyasastikaudanaprayoga (2.27), and vṛṣyapūpalikā (2.28-29).⁷⁵

Part three, called māṣaparṇabhṛtīya, is about sexually stimulating prescriptions which do not contain substances of animal origin, milk excepted (3.3–19).

Recipes with a name are: vṛṣyapippalīyoga (3.12–13), vṛṣyapāyasayoga (3.14), vṛ-ṣyapūpalikā (3.15–17), vṛṣyaśatāvarīghṛta (3.18), and vṛṣyamadhukayoga (3.19).

This section is followed by the characteristics of a fully potent male, various circumstances favouring the sexual urge, diverse sources of sexual excitement, etc. (3.20–30).⁷⁶

Part four, called pumāñjātabalādika, describes four types of sexual vigour in the male: dependent on the season (kāla), practice (abhyasana), effort (prayatna), ⁷⁷ and constitution (svabhāva) (4.3–7).

Twelve formulations are described which improve sexual vigour in the weak and further increase it in those already strong: vṛṣyamāṇṣaguṭikā (4.11-14), vṛṣyamāṇṣarasa (4.15-16), vṛṣyaghṛtabhṛṣṭamatsyamāṇṣa (4.17-18), 78 two vr-

şyapūpalikāyogas (4.19–22),⁷⁹ vṛṣyamāṣādipūpalikā (4.23–24),⁸⁰ apatyakaraghṛta (4.28–29), vṛṣyaguṭikā (4.30–32), and vṛṣyotkārikā (4.33–35).

Rules for sexual behaviour are formulated (4.36–45). Semen is described and the eight factors leading to its discharge: harşa (physical sexual stimulation), tarşa (mental sexual stimulation), saratva (fluidity of the semen), paicchilya (sliminess of the semen), gaurava (heaviness of the semen), aņupraṇavabhāva (the tendency of the semen, although of a small amount, to be ejaculated), mārutadrutatva (the impulse of vāyu to expel the semen) (4.46–50).81

The chapters ends with a definition of vajīkaraņa (4.51).

Chapter three is concerned with fevers (jvara) and their treatment. 82

Agnivesa puts eighteen questions on these subjects, to be elucidated by Ātreya (3.4-10).

The synonyms of jvara are listed (3.11). Its directly causative factors (prakṛṭi)⁸³ are the bodily and mental doṣas (3.12). The essence⁸⁴ of fever can be defined as kṣaya (wasting), tamas (entering into darkness), pāpman (sinfulness)⁸⁵ and mṛṭyu (death), which are features belonging to Yama⁸⁶ (3.13).

The appearance (pravṛtti) of fever is due to attachment to one's property (parigraha)⁸⁷ and to the wrath of Rudra⁸⁸ (3.14). The mythic origin of jvara is described; it arose, as the being called Vīrabhadra,⁸⁹ during the Tretāyuga from Śiva's anger during Daksa's sacrifice (3.15–25).⁹⁰

Specific characteristics (prabhāva) of fever are saṃtāpa (heat), aruci (loss of appetite), tṛṣṇā (thirst), aṅgamarda (aches in the whole body) and hṛdvyathā (distress in the cardiac region) (3.26).⁹1

The causes of the eight types of fever are not discussed, being dealt with already in the Nidānasthāna (3.27cd). The prodromes, however, are enumerated again (3.28–29). Pever is located in the entire body, along with the mind; the periods of time and its strength have been discussed in the Nidānasthāna (3.30). The invariable sign of fever is general heat (samtāpa) of body and mind (3.31).

Fevers are classified in various ways: ⁹⁵ somatic (śārīra) and psychic (mānasa), saumya and āgneya, antarvega and bahirvega, prākrta and vaikrta, curable and incurable; they are of five types according to the strength or weakness of the doṣas in relation to time: samtata, satata, anyedyuṣka, tṛtīyaka and caturthaka; they are of seven types according to their location in the elements of the body; they are of eight types according to their causes (i.e., the dosas) (3,32–35). ⁹⁶

The types mentioned are described. A somatic fever starts in the body, a mental fever in the mind; the signs of mental heat are enumerated; bodily heat affects the organs of sense too (3.36–37ab). A fever predominant in vāta and pitta leads to a desire for cold and cooling things, a fever predominant in vāta and kapha to a desire for warmth and heating things (3.37cd–38ab);⁹⁷ vāta is characterized as a synergist (yogavāha), producing heat in combination with pitta, coldness in combination with kapha (3.38cd–39ab).

The symptoms of antarvega (internal)⁹⁸ and bahirvega (external) fever are mentioned (3.39cd-41).⁹⁹ Prākrta and vaikrta fevers are discussed; a fever is prākrta if the

predominant doșa corresponds to the season in which it arises, vaikṛta if the doṣa disagrees with the season; ¹⁰⁰ vāta fever is peculiar in being difficult to cure, even when it is prākṛta (3.42–49). Curable and incurable fevers are characterized (3.50–52ab). ¹⁰¹ Two special types of incurable fever are described (3.52cd–53ab). ¹⁰²

The fevers called santata, ¹⁰³ satataka, ¹⁰⁴ anyedyuşka, ¹⁰⁵ trūyaka and caturthaka are dealt with; ¹⁰⁶ trūyaka is of three, caturthaka of two varieties (3.53cd-72). ¹⁰⁷ A special type of viṣamajvara (irregular, intermittent fever) is the type called caturthakaviparyaya (reversed quartan fever) (3.73). ¹⁰⁸ The five types of viṣamajvara mentioned ¹⁰⁹ are usually caused by a combination of all three doṣas, but designated after the predominant one (3.74).

The symptoms of fevers seated in the elements of the body are described (3.76–83), ¹¹⁰ followed by those caused by two dosas (3.84–89c). ¹¹¹ Twelve varieties of samnipāta fever are described, distinguished according to the degree to which each of the three dosas is excited (3.89d–102), ¹¹² followed by a thirteenth variety in which all three dosas are excited to an equal degree (3.103–109ab). ¹¹³ A samnipāta fever is incurable when all its symptoms have developed; when otherwise, it is curable with difficulty (3.109cd–110ab). ¹¹⁴

Āgantu fevers, which are secondarily associated with the dosas, are of four types: caused by abhighāta (injury), abhisanga (intense emotions ¹¹⁵ and possession by evil beings), abhicāra (sorcery) ¹¹⁶ and abhisāpa (curses); ¹¹⁷ these four types are discussed; some are said to regard a fever caused by the contact with air carrying poisonous substances from particular trees as belonging to the type called abhisanga ja (3.111cd-129ab). ¹¹⁸

The pathogenesis of fever is dealt with next (3.129cd-132ab). 119

Three stages of fever are discussed: fresh (taruṇa), ¹²⁰ maturing (pacyamāna), and devoid of immature matter (nirāma) ¹²¹ (3.132cd-138ab). ¹²²

The larger portion of the remaining part of the chapter (3.138cd-324ab) is devoted to the treatment of fevers. 123

Recipes provided with a name are candanādyataila $(3.258)^{124}$ and agurvādyataila $(3.267)^{.125}$

A swelling (śotha) at the root of the ear ¹²⁶ is described as a very serious complication of fever (3.287cd–289ab). A type of fever located in the peripheral parts of the body (the branches, śākhā), called śākhānusārin, should be treated by means of bloodletting (3.289cd–290ab). Fevers regarded as a complication of visarpa (erysipelas), abhighāta (trauma) and visphoṭaka (vesicular eruptions) are separately mentioned (3.290cd–291ab).

Worship of Śiva¹²⁷ and Umā, together with their attendants¹²⁸ and the group of the Mothers, ¹²⁹ recitation of the *Viṣṇusahasranāmastotra*, i.e., an enumeration of the thousand names of Viṣṇu¹³⁰, sacrifices to Brahmā, the Aśvins, Indra, Agni, the Himālaya, the Ganges, and the groups of Maruts, ¹³¹ etc., are recommended as means to release from fever (3.310cd–315ab). ¹³²

The chapter ends with the signs of release (mokṣa) from fever, the rules to be adhered to during convalescence, relapses (punarāvartana) and their management (3.324cd-343).

Chapter four, on raktapitta, begins with the nidāna (4.5-6)¹³³ and saṃprāpti (4.7-8) of raktapitta, ¹³⁴ the elucidation of its name (4.9), ¹³⁵ and its location: spleen and liver, ¹³⁶ whence it spreads throughout the body (4.10), ¹³⁷

The symptoms of raktapitta associated with one, two or three dosas are dealt with (4.11–13ab). ¹³⁸ It is curable when associated with one dosa, palliable when associated with two, and incurable when associated with three dosas; a series of other circumstances making it incurable are mentioned (4.13cd–14).

The upwards moving type is curable, the downwards moving type palliable, the type moving both upwards and downwards incurable (4.15–16). ¹³⁹ The type moving through all the holes ¹⁴⁰ and the pores of the hairs (romakūpa) leads to certain death (4.17). Other conditions making raktapitta incurable are mentioned (4.18–20). ¹⁴¹ Conditions making it palliable (4.21) or curable (4.22) are enumerated next.

Specific aetiological factors are discussed; oleaginous (snighta) and hot substances usually lead to the upwards moving, oleaginous and dry (rūkṣa) substances to the downwards moving type; the upwards moving type is associated with kapha, the downwards moving type with vāyu ¹⁴² (4.23–24).

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to the treatment of raktapitta (4.25-109). ¹⁴³ Specific prescriptions against bleeding from the urethra (4.85), anus (4.86-87) and nose (4.97-101) ¹⁴⁴ are described. Drugs useful against raktapitta are enumerated (4.102-104).

Recipes provided with a name are vāsāghṛta (4.88) 145 and śatāvaryādighṛta (4.95–96). 146

Chapter five, on gulma, deals with the following subjects: factors causing excitement of vāyu in the viscera (koṣṭha) (5.4–5); ¹⁴⁷ the saṃprāpti of the doṣic types of gulma (5.6–7); ¹⁴⁸ the five seats of gulma: the region of the urinary bladder (basti), umbilical region (nābhi), cardiac region (hṛd) and the two sides of the chest (pārśva) (5.8ab); ¹⁴⁹ the aetiology and symptomatology of gulma caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, two doṣas ¹⁵⁰, and all three doṣas ¹⁵¹ (5.8cd–17); the aetiology and symptomatology of gulma caused by blood, ¹⁵² occurring in fertile women only ¹⁵³ (5.18–19).

A large part of the chapter is devoted to the treatment of gulma (5.20–182). 154

Immature (apakva) gulma (5.40) and gulma in the stage of maturation (vidāha; 5.41–45) ¹⁵⁵ are described, followed by the stage in which it may evacuate its doşas on its own accord (svayampravrtta; 5.46–48ab). Treatment of gulma by means of alkaline fluids (kṣāra; 5.56cd–58ab) and cauterization (dāha; 5.60cd–64ab), methods belonging to the domain of specialists, ¹⁵⁶ is discussed.

Recipes against gulma which are provided with a name are: two kinds of tryūṣaṇādighṛta (5.65–66ab and 66cd–67ab), ¹⁵⁷ hingusauvarcalādyaghṛta (5.69–70), ¹⁵⁸ hapuṣādyaghṛta (5.71–73), ¹⁵⁹ pippalyādyaghṛta (5.74–75), ¹⁶⁰ hingvādicūrṇa ¹⁶¹ and -guṭikā (5.79–84), laśunakṣīra (5.94–95), ¹⁶² tailapañcaka (5.96), śilājatuprayoga (5.97), nīlinyādyaghṛta (5.105–109), ¹⁶³ rohiṇādyaghṛta (5.114–117), trāyamāṇādyaghṛta (5.118–121), ¹⁶⁴ āmalakyādyaghṛta (5.122), drākṣādyaghṛta (5.123–125), ¹⁶⁵ vāsāghrta (5.126–127), ¹⁶⁶ daśamūlīghṛta (5.142), bhallātakādyaghṛta (5.143–146), ¹⁶⁷ kşīraşatpalakaghrta (5.147–148), 168 miśrakasneha (5.149–151), 169 and dantīharītakī (5.154–160). 170

Chapter six is concerned with prameha.

It deals with the following subjects: the aetiology of prameha (6.4); ¹⁷¹ its samprāpti (6.5-6); 172 the curability of kaphaja prameha due to the similarity (samakriyatya) of the elements in its management; 173 the palliability of pittaja prameha on account of the dissimilarity (visamakriyatva) of these elements; the incurability of vata ja prameha due to the severity (mahātyayikatva) of its nature (6.7); the three dosas and ten dūsyas responsible for the appearance of prameha (6.8); ¹⁷⁴ the ten varieties of kaphaja prameha, six varieties of pittaja prameha, and four varieties of vataja prameha (6.9-11): 175 the characteristics of the varieties of prameha relating to the colour, taste, smell and tactile properties of the urine (6.12); the prodromes of prameha (6.13-14); ¹⁷⁶ general principles of the treatment of prameha ¹⁷⁷ (6.15–26); ¹⁷⁸ recipes to be used in the treatment of kaphaja (6.27-29), pittaja (6.30-32), 179 vataja (6.33-34), kapha- and pittaja prameha (6.35-39); various recipes and remedial measures (6.40-51); ¹⁸⁰ the nature of vatolbana prameha and its reatment (6.52); 181 the avoidance of causative factors during the treatment of prameha (6.53); the differential diagnosis of prameha and raktapitta (6.54); differential diagnosis when the urine is sweet, mucilaginous and resembling honey (6.55); special rules concerning the prognosis of prameha (6.56); incurability of prameha already present at birth, and of madhumeha inherited from one of the parents; the incurability of hereditary (kula ja) diseases in general (6.57); the seven types of pidakā appearing in patients suffering from prameha, ¹⁸² which are to be treated by surgeons (salyavidah) (6.58).

Chapter seven is devoted to kustha.

It begins with Ātreya's exposition of the subjects he is going to discuss in this chapter: the hetu (aetiology), dravya (i.e., dosas and dūsyas), ¹⁸³ linga (symptomatology), āśraya (substrate) and praśamana (treatment) of the forms of kustha, disorders which in particular damage the skin as the seat of the tactile sense. ¹⁸⁴

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology of kuṣtha (7.4–8), ¹⁸⁵ the seven and eleven forms of kuṣtha are always brought about by all three doṣas, which corrupt the skin, blood, muscular tissue and watery element (ambu) (7.9–10); ¹⁸⁶ the prodromes (7.11–12); ¹⁸⁷ an enumeration of the eighteen varieties of kuṣtha (7.13); ¹⁸⁸ the description of the seven major varieties (mahākuṣtha): kāpāla, audumbara, maṇḍala, ṛṣṣajihva, puṇḍarīka, sidhma ¹⁸⁹, and kākaṇa (7.14–20); ¹⁹⁰ the description of the eleven minor varieties (kṣuḍrakuṣtha): ¹⁹¹ ekakuṣṭha, ¹⁹² carmākhya, ¹⁹³ kiṭima, ¹⁹⁴ vaipādika, ¹⁹⁵ alasaka, ¹⁹⁶ dadrumaṇḍala, ¹⁹⁷ carmadala, ¹⁹⁸ pāmā, ¹⁹⁹ visphota, ²⁰⁰ śatārus, ²⁰¹ and vicarcikā ²⁰² (7.21–26); the doṣas preponderantly excited in these varieties: vāta in kāpāla, kapha in maṇḍala, pitta in audumbara, all three doṣas in kākaṇa, vāta and pitta in ṛṣṣajihva, kapha and pitta in puṇḍarīka, vāta and kapha in sidhmakuṣṭha, vāta and kapha usually in carmākhya, ekakuṣṭha, kiṭima, vipādikā and alasaka, pitta and kapha usually in pāmā, śatārus, visphota, dadru and carmadala, kapha usually in

vicarcikā (7.27–30); ²⁰³ all the varieties of kuṣṭha are, however, essentially brought about by the three doṣas; their relative strength (balābala) should be ascertained before beginning treatment; the predominant doṣa is to be counteracted first, the secondary one (anubandha) subsequently (7.31–32); the doṣas can be determined from the type of kuṣṭha present and the other way round (7.33); the signs which are characteristic for each doṣa in cases of kuṣṭha are enumerated (7.34–36); ²⁰⁴ a physician should refuse treating a patient presenting all the symptoms; cases of kuṣṭha in which one doṣa predominates or a combination of vāta and kapha are not difficult to cure, in contrast with cases with a predominance of kapha and pitta or vāta and pitta (7.37–38). ²⁰⁵

The remaining part of the chapter is largely devoted to the treatment of kustha ²⁰⁶ (7.39–161). ²⁰⁷

Recipes against kuṣṭha which are provided with a name are: mustādicūrṛia (7.65–67), ²⁰⁸ madhvāsava (7.73–75), ²⁰⁹ kanakabindvariṣṭa (7.76–79), śvetakaravī-rādyataila (7.105), ²¹⁰ śvetakaravīrapallavādyataila (7.106–107), tiktekṣvākvāditaila (7.108–110), ²¹¹ kanakakṣīrītaila (7.111–116), ²¹² khadiraghṛta, nimbaghṛta, dārvī-ghṛta and paṭolaghṛta (7.135), tiktaṣaṭpalakaghṛta (7.140–143), ²¹³ mahātiktakaghṛta (7.144–150), ²¹⁴ and mahākhadiraghṛta (7.152–156). ²¹⁵

The last part of the chapter is concerned with the disease called kilāsa, ²¹⁶ which is related to kuṣtha; it is usually brought about by the three doṣas; three varieties are distinguished: dāruṇa, aruṇa and śvitra, which are characterized by red, copper-coloured (aruṇa) and white spots respectively; these varieties have their seat in blood, muscular tissue and fatty tissue respectively; their degree of severity corresponds with the order in which they are mentioned; the curable and incurable types of śvitra are described; bad acts in this life and in previous existences, as well as the intake of incompatible foods, are said to cause kilāsa (7.173–177); ²¹⁷ the treatment of śvitra ²¹⁸ precedes its description (7.162–172). ²¹⁹

Chapter eight, on rajayaksman, ²²⁰ deals with the following subjects: the mythic origin of yaksman, ²²¹ which befell the moon-god (Indu, Candra, Candramas, Śaśin, Soma), due to his attachment to Rohinī, 222 one of the twenty-eight daughters of Prajāpati, and his neglect of the other ones; Prajapati, full of wrath, afflicted him with the disease. from which he was cured by the Asvins (8.3-10); 223 the names of the disease, which, ousted (from the heavenly world) by the Aśvins, came down to the world of human beings (8.11-12); the four causes of rajayaksman: exertion beyond one's capacity, suppression of natural urges, wasting (ksaya) (of bodily constituents), and irregular diet (visamāśana) (8.13): ²²⁴ a description of the way in which these four causes give rise to one form of the disease each; the eleven symptoms of these four forms ²²⁵ (8.14-32); ²²⁶ the prodromes (8.33–38ab); ²²⁷ the way in which the symptoms arise; a series of eleven symptoms is mentioned, ²²⁸ followed by a series of six symptoms; ²²⁹ irrespective of the number of symptoms present, a strong patient should be accepted for treatment, a weak patient rejected (8.38cd-47); ²³⁰ pratisyāya is described, one of the prodromes of (rāja) yaksman (8.48-50); ²³¹ coughing with expectoration of rasa (8.51), one of the symptoms of rajayaksman (8.43); a type of fever occurring in the disease (8.52); ²³² svarabheda (impairment of the voice), one of the symptoms; ²³³ this disorder is of various types: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, the strain of coughing (kāsavega), and pīnasa (chronic rhinitis) (8.53–55); śūla (piercing pain) in the sides of the chest (pārsva) and in the head (śiras), which are symptoms²³⁴ (8.56); spitting of blood, one of the eleven symptoms²³⁵ (8.57); the way in which blood accumulates in the āmāśay a, gets excited (utkliṣta), and comes out by way of the throat (8.58); śvāsa (shortness of breath) and atisāra (diarrhoea), which are found among the symptoms²³⁶ (8.59); aruci (loss of appetite), one of the symptoms;²³⁷ five varieties are mentioned: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas, ²³⁸ and disgust (8.60–61); chardi (vomiting), ²³⁹ a disorder brought about by arocaka (loss of appetite), the strain of coughing (kāsavega), excitement (utkleśa)²⁴⁰ of the dosas, and fear (8.62).

The remaining part of the chapter (8.63–189) is devoted to the treatment of rajayaksman²⁴¹ and the disorders forming part of it. ²⁴²

Meat dishes are thought to be useful in cases of rājayakṣman, particularly dishes prepared with the flesh of carnivorous animals. Because of the dislike these foods would inspire, they are to be served under the pretext that other animals are their source (8.149-162). ²⁴³

Recipes provided with a name are: yavānīṣādava (8.141-144), 244 tālīśādyacūrņa and -gutikā (8.145-148). 245

The last group of verses (8.179cd-189), preceding the summary (8.190-191), enumerates many practices, both medical and religious, which are beneficial to a patient suffering from rājayaksman. ²⁴⁶

Chapter nine, on unmāda (mental disorders),²⁴⁷ deals with: the causative factors of this disease (9.4); ²⁴⁸ its pathogenesis (samprāpti) (9.5); ²⁴⁹ the symptoms (9.6–7); ²⁵⁰ the essential characteristics of the two types of unmāda: ni ja (endogenous) and āgantu (exogenous) (9.8ab); ²⁵¹ the aetiology and symptomatology of unmāda caused by vāta (9.9-10), ²⁵² pitta (9.11-12), ²⁵³ kapha (9.13-14), ²⁵⁴ samnipāta (9.15); ²⁵⁵ the āgantu type of unmāda is caused by possession (abhidharsana) 256 by gods, sages, gandharvas, etc., improper observance of nivama (mental discipline), vratas (vows), 257 etc., and improper conduct in previous existences (9.16);²⁵⁸ the general characteristics of possession (bhūtottha unmāda) (9.17);²⁵⁹ the way in which possession comes about: gods, etc., who are invisible, enter into a human being, without affecting his body, by the special power (prabhāva) of the properties characteristic of them, in a way similar to the production of a reflection (chāyā) in a mirror or the penetration of the rays of the sun into a sūryakānta (sunstone) (9.18); ²⁶⁰ the characteristics of possession by divine beings (deva), 261 sages (rsi), 262 manes (pitar), 263 gandharvas, 264 yakşas, 265 rākṣasas, ²⁶⁶ brahmarāksasas, ²⁶⁷ piśācas (9.20); ²⁶⁸ the characteristics of persons liable to possession by a divine being, etc., and the days of the month on which divine beings, etc., preferably attack human beings (9.21); ²⁶⁹ signs of incurability (9.22); the treatment of unmada caused by beings whose objective is rati or arcana (9.23); ²⁷⁰ the treatment of nija and agantu types of unmada 271 (9.24-89ab); 272 the cure of unmada through paying homage to Siva 273 and his attendants, the Pramathas, 274 through sacrifices (bali, homa),²⁷⁵ the wearing of herbs and amulets (osadhidhārana and agadadhārana), mantras, good conduct, penance (tapas), 276 gifts (pradāna), niyama, vratas, etc.

(9.89cd-94); ²⁷⁷ treatment of unmāda in the same way as apasmāra (9.95); ²⁷⁸ the prevention of unmāda (9.96); the signs indicating recovery (9.97).

Recipes provided with a name are: kalyāṇakaghṛta (9.33cd-42ab),²⁷⁹ mahā-kalyāṇakaghṛta (9.42cd-44),²⁸⁰ nahāpaiśācikaghṛta (9.45-48),²⁸¹ laśunādyaghṛta (9.49-51), and a second laśunādyaghṛta (9.52-56), ²⁸²

Chapter ten, on apasmāra (epilepsy), deals with: a definition of this disease (10.3); ²⁸³ its aetiology (10.4–5) and pathogonesis (10.6–8ab); ²⁸⁴ the four types of apasmāra: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha and sammipāta; their symptoms ²⁸⁵ and degrees of curability; the intervals between the attacks (10.8cd–13); treatment of apasmāra (10.14–52); ²⁸⁶ apasmāra, in which in āgantu factor is secondarily (as an anubandha) involved, ²⁸⁷ added to the doṣic actiology, should be treated in the same way as the āgantu type of unmāda (10.53); the aetiology, pathogenesis (saṃprāpti), symptomatology and therapy of the mijor disease (mahāgada) called atattvābhiniveśa (10.54–63); ²⁸⁸ the treatment of chrcnic (cirakārin) epilepsy which has acquired a firm footing (kṛtāspada) (10.64–65); precautions to be taken by a patient suffering from apasmāra (10.66).

Recipes provided with a name are: pañcagavyaghṛta $(10.16-17)^{289}$ and mahā-pañcagavyaghṛta $(10.18-24)^{.290}$

Chapter eleven is concerned with katakana (injury to the chest and its effects). 291

The subjects dealt with are: the actiology of this disease (11.4–8); its pathogenesis; kṣata (injury) of the chestleads to kṣaya (wasting), due to deficiency of śukra and ojas (11.9–12ab); the prodromes ²⁹² and ¬ymptoms (11.12cd–13); the degrees of curability (11.14); treatment (11.15–95).

Recipes provided with a name are: elādigutikā (11.21-24), 293 amṛtaprāśaghṛta (11.35-43), 294 śvadaṃṣṭrādighṛta (i11.44-47), five varieties of sarpirguḍa (11.50-55, 56-61, 62-65, 66-69, 70-77), 295 saindhavādicūrṇa (11.85-87), and ṣāḍava (11.88-90).

Chapter twelve is about śvayathu (swelling). 296

It deals with the following subjects: the classification of the types of this disorder: caused by vāta, pitta and kapha, nija and anija (= āgantu), localized (ekāngaja) and generalized (sarvaja)²⁹⁷ (12.4); ²⁸ the aetiology of the nija and āgantu types (12.5–7ab); ²⁹⁹ three varieties of the nija and āgantu types according to their seat: the whole body, half of it, or part of it (12.7cd) the samprāpti of śvayathu (12.8); śvayathu occurring in the upper (ūrdhvaga), lower adhoga) and middle part (madhyaga) of the body, śvayathu of the whole body (sarvāngaga), and localized forms, called after the part affected (12.9); the prodromes (12.10ab); all varieties of śvayathu are caused by the three concerted doṣas, but they are ilesignated after the predominant doṣa and treated accordingly (2.10cd); the symptoms of śvayathu in general (12.11); the symptoms of śvayathu with a predominance of vata (12.12), pitta (12.13) and kapha (12.14); ³⁰⁰ six fatal complications (12.15); ³⁰¹ signs indicating curability (12.16ab); the treatment of śvayathu ³⁰² (12.16cd–73). ³⁰³

Recipes provided with a name are: gaṇḍīrādyariṣṭa (12.29–31), ³⁰⁴ aṣṭaśatāriṣṭa (12.32–33), punarnavādyariṣṭa (12.34–38), ³⁰⁵ **t**riphalādyariṣṭa (12.39–40), kṣāraguḍikā (12.43–46), ³⁰⁶ śilā jatuprayoga (12.49), kaṃsaharītakī (12.50–52), ³⁰⁷ and citrakaghrta (12.58–59). ³⁰⁸

Some localized varieties of śvayathu are described; śirahśotha (12.75ab); 309 śālūka of the throat (12.75cd);³¹⁰ bidālikā (12.76);³¹¹ tāluvidradhi (12.77ab);³¹² upa jihvikā 313 and adhijihvikā 314 (12.77cd); upakuśa (12.78ab); 315 dantavidradhi (12.78cd);³¹⁶ galaganda³¹⁷ and gandamālā;³¹⁸ curable and incurable forms of these disorders, and their treatment (12.79-80);³¹⁹ granthi and its treatment (12.81-86);³²⁰ arbuda, to be treated in the same way as granthi (12.87); 321 alajī (12.88ab); 322 aksata, located at the junction of skin and nails (carmanakhāntara), caused by corruption of muscular tissue and blood (12.88cd); 323 vidārikā (12.89a-c); 324 the treatment of alajī, aksata and vidārikā (12.89d-90ab); visphotaka (12.90cd); 325 kaksā (12.91ab); 326 various other pidakās, caused by pitta (12.91cd); 327 romāntikā (12.92); 328 masūrikā (12.93ab); 329 the treatment of visphotaka, kakṣā, romāntikā and masūrikā, which is similar to the treatment of vīsarpa and kustha (12.93cd);³³⁰ bradhna, a disorder in which the intestine repeatedly comes out and enters the scrotum; 331 it is caused by each of the three dosas, which present their characteristic signs; a similar swelling is brought about by urine 332 and medas (fatty tissue); bradhna is to be treated on conservative lines or by means of surgery (12,94-95);333 bhagandara334 and its treatment by means of conservative measures or surgery³³⁵ (12.96-97); slīpada³³⁶ and its treatment 337 (12.98); 338 jālakagardabha and its treatment (12.99-100). 339

The chapter ends with guidelines for the treatment of other local swellings (12.101); vāta, in combination with blood, is the agent in red swellings caused by a trauma (abhighāta); their treatment consists of measures prescribed against vīsarpa and disorders arising from vāta in combination with blood; swellings caused by poisonous substances should be counteracted through antitoxic measures (12.102).

Chapter thirteen, devoted to udara, begins with a number of questions on this disease, put to(Ātreya) Punarvasu, dwelling on mount Kailāsa, by his pupil Agniveśa (13.3–8). Punarvasu answers these questions.

The chapter describes the pathogenesis of udara (13.9–11); the aetiology (13.12–15), ³⁴⁰ the prodromes (13.16–19); ³⁴¹ pathogenesis again (13.20); ³⁴² the general symptoms of udara (13.21); ³⁴³ the eight types of udara: by each of the three dosas and all three together (samnipāta), phīhodara, baddhodara, kṣatodara, and udakodara (13.22); ³⁴⁴ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of vātodara (13.23–26), ³⁴⁵ pittodara (13.26–28), ³⁴⁶ kaphodara (13.29–31), ³⁴⁷ samnipātodara (13.23–34), ³⁴⁸ phīhodara (splenomegalia) ³⁴⁹ and a similar disorder affecting the liver (yakri) ³⁵⁰ (13.35–38), baddhagudodara ³⁵¹ (13.39–41), ³⁵² chidrodara, ³⁵³ which may develop into udakodara ³⁵⁴ (13.42–44), udakodara (ascites, i.e. dropsy) (13.45–47); ³⁵⁵ the way in which udakodara develops, its two stages ³⁵⁶ and their symptoms (13.48); complications (upadrava), indicating incurability (13.49), ³⁵⁷ vātodara, pittodara, kaphodara, phīhodara, samnipātodara and udakodara are in this order of increasing severity; baddhagudodara usually becomes incurable after a fortnight; udakodara in its

jātodaka stage and chidrāntrodara³⁵⁸ are generally incurable right from the beginning (13.50–51); ³⁵⁹ signs indicating incurability and a fatal outcome (13.52–53); the cure of all types of udara is generally very difficult (kṛcchratama), but, under a number of specified conditions, the efforts at treatment may be successful (13.54); ³⁶⁰ the symptoms of the type of udara called ajātodaka (13.55–58); the treatment of the various types of udara (13.59–95ab) ³⁶¹ and udara in general ³⁶² (13.95cd–146ab); ³⁶³ treatment after the elimination of the doṣas (13.146cd–175ab); ³⁶⁴ treatment of refractory cases of udara with snake venom (13.175cd–184ab); ³⁶⁵ surgical treatment (13.184cd–188); draining of the fluid accumulated in the abdominal cavity by means of a trocar (nā♠ī), applicable in all types of udara which have reached the jātodaka stage (13.189–190); treatment subsequent on draining (13.191–193ab); after-treatment in general (13.193cd–194). ³⁶⁶

Recipes provided with a name are: patolādyacūrņa (13.119cd–124ab), ³⁶⁷ nārā-yaṇacūrṇa (13.124cd–133ab), hapuṣādyacūrṇa (13.133cd–137ab), nīlinādyacūrṇa (13.137cd–138ab), and snuhīkṣīraghṛta (13.138cd–140). ³⁶⁸

Chapter fourteen, on arsas (haemorrhoids), ³⁶⁹ begins again with Agniveśa's questioning Punarvasu and the topics to be discussed: the aetiology (prakopahetu), shapes (saṃsthāna), location (sthāna), signs (liṅga), treatment, and degrees of curability of haemorrhoids (14.3–4).

The subjects dealt with are: the classification of haemorrhoids into those present at birth (sahaja) and those developing at a later time (uttarakālaja); the substrate (āyatana) of those present at birth is the damaged (upatapta) bīja, 370 responsible for the development of the ano-rectal folds (gudavali); damage to the bīja is in this case, as in all sahaja disorders, caused by faulty behaviour (apacara) of the parents and transgressions during a previous existence; haemorrhoids are defined as a disorder characterized by an excess of muscular tissue (adhimāmsavikāra) (14.5); the site (ksetra) of all haemorrhoids is composed of the three ano-rectal folds (gudavali),³⁷¹ which occupy a space (avakāśa) measuring five fingers (angula) and a half³⁷² and divide this space into three parts; some are of the opinion that growths called arsas are also found on the penis (śiśna), the female genitals (apathyapatha), in the pharynx (gala), on the palate, in the oral cavity (mukha), nose and ears, on the eyelids and the skin; these also consist of an excess of muscular tissue (adhimāmsa), but only those arising from the ano-rectal folds are regarded as haemorrhoids in the present treatise; the substratum (adhisthana) of all haemorrhoids consists of fatty tissue, muscular tissue and skin (14.6); 373 the shapes and colours of sahaja haemorrhoids (14.7); their symptoms (14.8);³⁷⁴ the aetiology and pathogenesis of acquired haemorrhoids (14.9); their shapes (14.10); the symptoms of haemorrhoids brought about by vata (4.11) and their aetiology (14.12-13); 375 the symptoms and aetiology of haemorrhoids brought about by pitta (14.14 and 15-16), kapha (14.17 and 18-19), and a combination of two or three dosas (14.20); ³⁷⁶ the prodromes (14.21-22);³⁷⁷ haemorrhoids are always caused by all three dosas, but designated after the predominant one (14.23); the excitation of the five kinds of vata. of pitta, kapha, and of the three ano-rectal folds collectively leads to the appearance of haemorrhoids, a painful disorder, usually difficult to cure (14.24-25); the degrees

of curability and their determining factors (14.26–32); ³⁷⁸ treatment by means of excision (kartana), caustics (kṣāra) or cauterization (dāha), to be performed by experienced specialists, on account of the risks involved; the complications that may arise from these treatments (śastrakṣārāgnivibhrama); the hazardous character of the mentioned methods of treatment is the reason for describing easier ones, less painful and perilous (14.33–37); ³⁷⁹ the classification of haemorrhoids into two categories: dry (śuṣka), with a predominance of vāta and kapha, and discharging (prasrāvin), with a predominance of blood and pitta (14.38); treatment of haemorrhoids (14.39–169); ³⁸⁰ bleeding haemorrhoids, in which kapha or vāta is secondarily involved (as an anubandha) (14.170); the treatment of bleeding haemorrhoids (14.243 and 246–248); the interdependence of haemorrhoids, diarrhoea and grahanī (14.244–245).

Recipes provided with a name are: takrāriṣṭa (14.72-75), 382 abhayāriṣṭa (14.138-143), 383 dantyariṣṭa (14.144-147), 384 two varieties of phalāriṣṭa (14.148-152) and $^{153}-157$, kanakāriṣṭa (14.158-168), 385 kuṭajādirasakriyā (14.188-192), picchābasti (14.224-229), hrī verādighṛṭa (14.230-233), 386 and suniṣaṇṇakacāṅgerīghṛṭa (14.234-242), 387

Chapter fifteen 388 deals with the disorder called grahanīdesa. 389

The chapter begins with stressing the importance of the bodily fires (agni) (15.4–5). The prāṇa carries the food to the koṣṭha, where it is disintegrated (bhinnasaṇghāta) by fluids and softened by fatty substances, before being acted upon by the digestive ūre, ³⁹⁰ which is fanned (avadhūta) by the samāṇa; the fire, situated below the āmāśaya, cooks the food, which is separated into rasa and waste matter (mala) (15.6–8). The food, which has six tastes, is subjected to the process called prapāka; three stages are described; in the first stage the food becomes predominantly sweet and frothy (phenabhūta) by kapha; it becomes acid when being half-digested (vidagdha), descends (from the āmāśaya), and is acted upon by clear (accha) bile; having reached the pakvāśaya and being desiccated by the fire, it is converted into lumps (paripiṇdita) and becomes pungent due to the activity of vāta (15.9–11). ³⁹¹

The senses and sense organs are nourished by the food (15.12). The fires of the five mahābhūtas digest the fractions of the food possessing the qualities of these bhūtas (15.13). ³⁹²The products of this digestion nourish the bodily constituents possessing the same qualities (15.14). ³⁹³ The seven bodily elements (dhātu), acted upon by their respective fires, are converted into a pure portion (prasāda) and a waste product (kiṭṭa) (15.15). ³⁹⁴

The formation of the bodily elements takes place in the following order, each element being transformed into the subsequent one: rasa, rakta, māmsa, medas, asthi, majjā, śukra; a foetus arises from the pure portion of śukra (15.16). 395

These elements nourish in their turn other bodily constituents: ³⁹⁶ rasa nourishes the breastmilk (stanya) and the blood (rakta) in women (that is transformed into the menstrual discharge), blood (asṛj) nourishes the kaṇḍarās and sirās, māṃsa nourishes vasā and the six layers of the skin, medas nourishes the snāyus and sand his (15.17).

The waste products (kitta, mala) of the food are faeces and urine; the waste product

of rakta is bile (pitta); the waste products of māmsa consist of the impurities of the bodily orifices; the waste product of medas is sweat (sveda), of asthi the hairs of head (keśa) and body (loman), of majjā the fatty substance (sneha) of eyes, faeces and skin; these substances support (upasaṃstambha) each other and maintain the body (15.18–19).

The intake of aphrodisiacs (vṛṣya) accelerates the processes described. Some are of the opinion that the process of conversion of the bodily elements (parivartana) is completed in a period of six days; however, the transformational processes (parivṛtti) take place continually in a cyclic way (cakra/at) (15.20–21). 397

On the request of his pupil, Ātreya explains the changes of the properties of the bodily elements in the course of the transformational processes (15.22–35). ³⁹⁸

The vyāna disperses the element rasa continually throughout the body; a local morbid alteration (vikṛti) appears if this moving about of rasa is blocked at a particular place due to pathological changes of channels (khavaigunya); the doṣas are subsequently excited at that very place (15.36–38ab).

The digestive fire is the chief one (adhipa) among all the bodily fires (paktar), which are dependent on it. For this reason it should be carefully protected, since, otherwise, grahanīdosa may develop (15.38cd-41).

The actiology of disorders of the digestive fire (agnidosa) is described, ³⁹⁹ followed by their symptoms, in combination with excitation of one of the three dosas (15.42–49).

The actions on the dhātus of a normal digestive fire and of a disordered fire are described (15.50-51ab).

A weak digestive fire leads to incomplete digestion (vidāha) of the ingested food, which then moves upwards or downwards; the disorder is called grahanīgada if it moves downwards. The symptoms are described, followed by the prodromes (15.51cd-55).400

The grahanī and its functions are dealt with (15.56-57). 401

The aetiology and symptomatology of grahanīdoṣa caused by vāta, pitta, kapha and samnipāta are discussed. 402 The three disorders of the digestive fire mentioned in the rogānīka chapter 403 are included under the heading of grahanīdoṣa (15.58–72).

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to the treatment of grahanīdoṣa 404 and agnidoṣa (15.73-243).

Recipes provided with a name are: daśumūlādyaghṛta (15.82–86), ⁴⁰⁵ tryūṣaṇādyaghṛta (15.87), ⁴⁰⁶ pañcamūlādyaghṛta and -cūrṇa (15.88–93), citrakādyaguṭikā (15.96–97), maricādyacūrṇa (15.98–110), ⁴¹? takrāriṣṭa (15.117cd–121), ⁴⁰⁸ candanādyaghṛta (15.125–128), nāgarādyacūrṇa (15.129–131), ⁴⁰⁹ bhūnimbādyacūrṇa (15.132–133), kirātādyacūrṇa (15.134–14-), ⁴¹⁰ madhūkāsava (15.146–149), ⁴¹¹ durālabhāsava (15.152–155), ⁴¹² mūlāsava -15.156–159), piṇḍāsava (15.160–162), madhvariṣṭa (15.163–167), ṣaṭpalaghṛta (15.168–170), ⁴¹³ kṣāraghṛta (15.171–172), ⁴¹⁴ and several kinds of kṣāra (15.177–193).

Chapter sixteen is concerned with pāṇdurogat(morbid pallor and related disorders). 415
Subjects dealt with are: the five typesi of pāṇduroga, caused respectively by vāta, pitta, kapha, samnipāta and the eating of earth (mrdbhaksana) 416 (16.3); 417

the saṃprāpti and aetiology (16.4–11); ⁴¹⁸ the prodromes (16.12b–d) ⁴¹⁹ and general symptoms (16.13–16); the symptoms of pāṇḍuroga caused by vāta (16.17–18), ⁴²⁰ pitta (16.19–22), ⁴²¹ kapha (16.23–25), ⁴²² saṃnipāta (16.26), ⁴²³ and the eating of earth (16.27–30); signs indicating incurability (16.31–33); the aetiology and symptomatology of kāmalā (jaundice) ⁴²⁴ and kumbhakāmalā, due to pitta (16.34–37ab); ⁴²⁵ signs of incurability (16.37cd–39ab); ⁴²⁶ treatment of the diseases described ⁴²⁷ (16.39cd–132ab); ⁴²⁸ the symptoms of halīmaka, due to vāta and pitta (16.132cd–134ab); ⁴²⁹ its treatment (16.134cd–138ab). ⁴³⁰

Recipes provided with a name are: dāḍimādyaghṛta (16.44—46), ⁴³¹ kaṭukādyaghṛta (16.47—49), ⁴³² pathyāghṭta (16.50), dantīghṛta (16.51), drākṣāghṛta (16.52), ⁴³³ haridrādighṛta (16.53), ⁴³⁴ navāyasacūrṇa (16.70–71), ⁴³⁵ maṇdūravaṭaka (16.73–77), yogarāja (16.80cd–87ab), śilājatuvaṭaka (16.87cd–93ab), punarnavamaṇdūra (16.93cd–96), ⁴³⁶ dhātryavaleha (16.100–102ab), ⁴³⁷ a second maṇdūravaṭaka (16.102cd–105ab), gauḍāriṣṭa (16.105cd–106ab), bījakāriṣṭa (16.106cd–111ab), ⁴³⁸ and dhātryariṣṭa (16.111cd–114ab). ⁴³⁹

Substances containing iron or an iron compound are frequently prescribed in this chapter, ⁴⁴⁰ as well as a number of minerals. ⁴⁴¹

Chapter seventeen contains an exposition on hikkā (hiccup) and śvāsa (shortness of breath).

The chapter begins with Agniveśa's questions about diseases caused by three doşas and with three factors leading to excitement (prakopaṇa); ⁴⁴² these diseases are difficult to overcome (durjaya) (17.3–4).

Ātreya answers that hikkā and śvāsa are conspicuous among fatal diseases and often appear in the last stage of various other disorders (17.5-7).

Hikkā and śvāsa show a predominance of vāta and kapha, arise from the seat of pitta, ⁴⁴³ and desiccate the heart and the dhātus, which makes them very difficult to overcome, leading to death if not properly managed (17.8–9).

Hikkā and śvāsa are both of five types (17.10ab).

Ātreya gives an exposition on their common aetiology (17.10cd–16)⁴⁴⁴ and samprāpti (17.17–18ab),⁴⁴⁵ the prodromes of hikkā and those of śvāsa (17.18cd–20),⁴⁴⁶ and the specific samprāpti of hikkā (17.21).

The five types of hikkā are described: mahāhikkā (17.22-26),⁴⁴⁷ gambhīrā hikkā (17.27-30),⁴⁴⁸ vyapetā hikkā (17.31-33),⁴⁴⁹ kṣudrahikkā (17.34-37),⁴⁵⁰ and annajā hikkā (17.38-41).⁴⁵¹ The characteristics of patients who are liable to die from hikkā are dealt with (17.42-43ab).⁴⁵² The type of hikkā called yamikā (having double bouts) ⁴⁵³ is described, followed by the degrees of curability of hikkā (17.43cd-44).⁴⁵⁴

The specific samprāpti of śvāsa⁴⁵⁵ is dealt with (17.45), and the five types of this disease are described: mahāśvāsa (17.46–48),⁴⁵⁶ ūrdhvaśvāsa (17.49–51),⁴⁵⁷ chinnaśvāsa (17.52–54),⁴⁵⁸ tamaka (17.55–62),⁴⁵⁹ pratamaka,⁴⁶⁰ and samtamaka (17.63–64).⁴⁶¹ Kṣudraśvāsa (a minor degree of śvāsa) is described as a disorder brought about by dry articles of food and exertion; it is curable in strong patients. The other types of śvāsa are curable if not fully manifest (avyaktalakṣaṇa) (17.65–68ab).⁴⁶² The fatal cases should be given up, the curable and palliable ones should be treated as

quickl / as possible (17.68cd-69).

The remaining part of the chapter $(17.70-151)^{463}$ is devoted to treatment 464 (17.68-150), 465

Recipes provided with a name are: muktādyacūrņa (17.125–128), tejovatyādighṛta (17.141cd–144), ⁴⁶⁶ and manaḥśilādighṛta (17.145–146).

Chapter eighteen is concerned with kasa (cough). 467

Its subjects are: the five types of kāsa: three types caused by the doṣas, one caused by a trauma (kṣata), and one caused by wasting (kṣaya); 468 they lead to wasting when they are progressive (18.3–4); the prodromes (18.5); 469 the samprāpti (18.6–8); 470 the causes of the specific characteristics (18.9); the aetiology and symptomatology of kāsa brought about by vāta (18.10–13), 471 pitta (18.14–16), 472 kapha (18.17–19), 473 in jury to the :hest (uraḥkṣata) (18.20–23), 474 and wasting (18.24–29a); 475 kāsa due to wasting is ratal in wasted (kṣīṇa) patients, but curable in strong ones; kāsa of traumatic origin is ralliable in strong patients, both types are sometimes curable if they are of recent origin and correctly treated; kāsa appearing in old age (jarākāsa) is palliable (18.29–30) 471

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to treatment⁴⁷⁷ (18.31-190).⁴⁷⁸

Recipes provided with a name are: kaṇṭakārīghṛta (18.35),⁴⁷⁹ pippalyādighṛta (18.36-38),⁴⁸⁰ tryūṣaṇādyaghṛta (18.39-42),⁴⁸¹ rāsnāghṛta (18.43-46),⁴⁸² citrakādileha (18.53-56), agastyaharītakī (18.57-62),⁴⁸³ daśamūlādighṛta (18.123-124),⁴⁸⁴ a second kaṇṭakārīghṛta (18.125-128), kulatthādighṛta (18.129),⁴⁸⁵ dvipañcamūlādighṛta (18.158-160), gudūcyādighṛta (18.161-162),⁴⁸⁶ harītakīleha (18.168-169), and padmakādileha (18.174-175).⁴⁸⁷

Chapter nineteen gives an exposition on atīsāra (diarrhoea). 488

It legins with a story on the first appearance⁴⁸⁹ of this disease. During the first age of the world (ādikāla) the sacrificial animals were not killed, but only taken hold of. Later, after Dakṣa's sacrifice,⁴⁹⁰ the animals began to be consecrated (prokṣaṇa)⁴⁹¹ with their own consent (abhyanujñāna), in the sacrificial rites (kratu) of the sons of (Vaivasvata) Manu, called Nariṣyant, Nābhāga, Ikṣvāku, Nṛga, Śaryāti,⁴⁹² etc. Still later, l'ṛṣaḍhra⁴⁹³ started sacrificing cattle, because other animals were not available for his prolonged soma ritual (dīrghasattra).⁴⁹⁴ This made all creatures grief-stricken, and, when the meat of these cattle was consumed, all creatures began, because of their n ental affliction and, consequently, by an impaired digestive fire, to suffer from diarrhoea, due to the properties of this inauspicious (aśasta) food (19.4).

The chapter proceeds with: the description of the aetiology⁴⁹⁵ and symptomatology of atīsāra caused by vāta (19.5), pitta (19.6), kapha (19.7), ⁴⁹⁶ two saṃnipāta types of atīsira ⁴⁹⁷; degrees of curability ⁴⁹⁸ (19.8−10); atīsāra due to fear (bhaya)⁴⁹⁹ and grief (śoka) ⁵⁰⁰ the last two types, of a mental and exogenous nature, present the same symptoms as atīsāra caused by vāta (19.11). ⁵⁰¹

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to the treatment of the curable kinds of the six types of atīsāra⁵⁰² (19.12–122).⁵⁰³ A recipe called cāṅgerīghṛta is mentioned (19.43).⁵⁰⁴

The section on treatment refers to atīsāra accompanied by partially digested food (vidagdhāhāramūrchita) or undigested matter (āmātīsāra) (19.14–15), and a form devoid of āma (nirāma; 19.42). Inadvertent treatment of āmātīsāra may lead to the disorder called daṇḍakālasaka (19.16). The disease called pravāhikā is mentioned a number of times without being characterized (19.30, 34).⁵⁰⁵ Raktātisāra (bloody diarrhoea) is regarded as a severe form of pittātisāra (19.69–70); ⁵⁰⁶ valīpāka (inflammation of the ano-rectal folds) may develop in the course of pittātisāra (19.101cd–102ab).

A prolapse of the anus is more than once mentioned as a sequel of diarrhoea (19.42: gudaniḥsaraṇa; 19.43: gudabhraṇśa; 19.46: bhraṣṭaguda). 507

Chapter twenty, on chardi (vomiting), deals with: the five types of this disease: caused by each of the three dosas separately, by the three dosas jointly, and by contact with disgusting things (dviṣṭārthayoga) (20.6ab); the prodromes (20.6cd); the aetiology and symptomatology of chardi brought about by vāta (20.7–9), pitta (20.10–11), kapha (20.12–13), and all three dosas together (20.14–15); faecal vomiting as a fatal disorder (20.16–17); vomiting caused by disgusting objects (20.18);⁵⁰⁸ incurable and curable types of vomiting (20.19);⁵⁰⁹ treatment (20.20–48).⁵¹⁰

Chapter twenty-one, on visarpa (erysipelas), ⁵¹¹ begins with Agniveśa's questions on this disease; Ātreya, roaming about in the region of Kailāsa, answers them (21.3–10).

The subjects are: the name of the disease, visarpa or parisarpa, called thus on account of its spreading character (21.11);⁵¹² the seven types of visarpa, a disease having seven kinds of pathogenic elements (dhātu): caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, samnipāta, and the three combinations of two dosas; āgneyavisarpa is brought about by vāta and pitta, granthivisarpa by kapha and vāta, kardamakavisarpa by pitta and kapha (21.12-14); seven pathogenic elements (dhātu) are responsible for the production (samutpatti) of visarpa; four corruptible bodily elements (dūsya), namely rakta (blood), lasīkā (serous fluid), tvac (the layers of the skin) and māmsa (muscular tissue), together with the three dosas (21.15); 513 the common aetiology of visarpa (21.16–22); three kinds of visarpa: located externally (bahihśrita), internally (antahśrita) and both ways (ubhayasamśrita); the severity increases in the mentioned order; the first kind is curable, the second is very difficult to cure, and the third incurable (21.23-24); 514 the symptoms of internally and externally located visarpa (21,25-27); the signs indicating a fatal outcome (21.28);⁵¹⁵ the aetiology and symptomatology of visarpa arising from vāta (21.29-30),⁵¹⁶ pitta (21.31-32),⁵¹⁷ and kapha (21.33-34);⁵¹⁸ the aetiology and symptomatology of the incurable agnivisarpa, caused by vata and pitta (21.35-36), the incurable kardamavisarpa, caused by kapha and pitta (21.37-38), and the incurable granthivasarpa, caused by kapha and vāta (21.39); the definition of upadrava (complication) as a disease (roga) in itself, based on (another) disease, appearing in a later stage of that (primary) disease; the (primary) disease (vyādhi) is the main one (pradhāna), the upadrava shares its properties (gunabhūta); the upadrava is usually alleviated together with the primary disease; an upadraya should be quickly overcome. because it afflicts a patient the more due to its appearance in a later stage of an already existing disease (21.40);⁵¹⁹ the incurability of samnipātavisarpa (21.41);⁵²⁰ visarpa, caused by vāta, pitta or kapha is curable; agni- and kardamavisarpa are under certain conditions amenable to treatment; granthivisarpa may be accepted for treatment if it does not present complications; samnipātavisarpa is incurable (21.42), ⁵²¹ treatment (21.43–143), ⁵²² the treatment of granthivisarpa may also be applied to galagaṇḍa caused by kapha; the treatment of galagaṇḍa arising from vāta and kapha is also succinctly described (21.139–140), ⁵²³ visarpa is said to be a disease that is always associated with raktapitta (21.142).

Recipes mentioned in the section on treatment are mahātiktaghṛta $(21.62)^{524}$ and trāyamāṇāghṛta $(21.63)^{.525}$

Chapter twenty-two, on tṛṣṇā (morbid thirst), deals with: the aetiology and general pathogenesis (saṇṇprāpti) of this disorder (22.4–7); ⁵²⁶ the prodromes ⁵²⁷ and the general characteristics ⁵²⁸ (svalakṣaṇa) ⁵²⁹ of all types of tṛṣṇā (22.8); symptoms of tṛṣṇā (22.9–10); ⁵³⁰ the pathogenesis and symptoms of tṛṣṇā brought about by vāta (22.11–12), ⁵³¹ pitta (22.13–14), ⁵³² āmapitta (22.15), ⁵³³ decrease of rasa (rasakṣaya) (22.16), ⁵³⁴ and as a complication (upasarga) ⁵³⁵ of jvara (fever), prameha (urinary disorders), wasting (kṣaya), śoṣa (desiccation), śvāsa (shortness of breath) and other diseases (22.17); ⁵³⁶ conditions leading to a fatal outcome (22.18); ⁵³⁷ varieties of tṛṣṇā, included in those arising from vāta and pitta; these varieties occur owing to the intake of heavy articles of food, milk, and fatty substances, during the digestive process (vidāha), and due to the habitual use of alcoholic drinks (22.19–22); ⁵³⁸ tṛṣṇā occurring after taking a cold bath (22.23); the symptoms of all kinds of tṛṣṇā are caused by vāta, pitta and decrease (of fluid) ⁵³⁹ (22.24); treatment (22.25–62). ⁵⁴⁰

Chapter twenty-three is concerned with poisonous substances (viṣa) and the treatment of poisoning. 541

The subjects are: the first appearance (pragutpatti) of poison during the churning of the ocean; it arose, prior to the amrta, in human form, as a fierce-looking, resplendent being with four fangs, fair-haired, with fiery eyes; he was called Visa because the living beings became visanna (dejected) on seeing him (23.4-5);⁵⁴² Brahmā placed visa in two sources (voni): mobile (i.e., animals; jangama) and immobile (i.e., plants; sthāvara); it originates from water, is of two kinds, resembles fire, has eight stages of action (vega), ten properties, and twenty-four ways of treatment (upakrama) (23.6); being of a watery origin, it becomes fluid like guda and spreads during the rainy season; Agastya 543 harms it when the clouds have disappeared, as a result of which its potency (vīrya) becomes milder (manda) (23.7-8); a long series of fanged (damstrin) animals, whose fangs are the source of jangama poisons: sarpa (snake), kīta, indura, lūtā (spider), vrścikā (scorpion), grhagodhikā, jalaukas (leech), matsya (fish), mandūka (frog), kanabha, krkantaka, śvan (dog), simha (lion), vyāghra (tiger), gomāyu (jackal), taraksu (hyena), nakula (ichneumon), etc. (23.9-10); the sthira (= sthāvara) poisons, deriving from the roots of plants: mustaka, pauskara, krauñca, vatsanābha, balāhaka, karkata, kālakūta, karavīraka, pālaka, indrāvudha, taila, meghaka, kuśapuspaka, rohisa, pundarīka, lāngalakī, añjanābhaka, samkoca, markata, śrngīvisa, hālāhala, etc. (23.11-13);⁵⁴⁴ a third type of poisonous substance,

called gara, which results from a mixture of substances; it is not instantly lethal, because its activation (vipākitva) takes time (23.14);545 the effects of poisons of animal and vegetable origin; animal poisons (jāngama, damstrāvisa) affect the lower, vegetable poisons (sthāvara, maulavisa) the lower part of the body, which makes the two types antagonistic (23.15–17); the signs of the eight stages of action (vega) in human beings; 546 these stages, four in number, as occurring in quadrupeds; the three stages occurring in birds⁵⁴⁷ (23.18–23); the ten properties of poison: laghu (light), rūksa (dry), āśu (quickly acting), viśada (clear), vyavāyin (diffusive), 548 tīksna (sharp), vikāsin (relaxation promoting), 549 sūksma (subtle), usņa (hot), of undefined taste (anirdeśyarasa) (23.24); 550 poison excites vāta by its dryness, pitta by its heat, blood by its subtlety, kapha by its undefined taste; it quickly pervades (anuvartate) 551 the annarasa (rasa derived from the food); due to its vyavāyin and āśu character, it quickly penetrates into the whole body; it damages the vital organs (marman) due to its sharpness and the prana(s) because it is vikasin; its lightness makes treatment difficult; it does not impede the movement of the dosas (asaktagatidosa) on account of its clearness (23.25–27); 552 the symptoms of poisoning in persons with a constitution dominated by vāta, pitta or kapha (23.28–30); 553 dūsīvisa (a slowly acting poison) brings about corruption of the blood, arus (ulcers), kitibha⁵⁵⁴ and kotha (an urticarial rash); it is fatal, because it corrupts each dosa separately (23.31); 555 the fiery quality (tejas) 556 of poison makes the blood flow, which blocks the vessels (kha), leading to death; poison that is drunk stays in the heart after death, while the poison of a bite or sting remains at the site bitten or stung (23.31-32);557 the signs of death by poisoning are described (23.33-34); the twenty-four ways of treatment: mantra, 558 aristā, 559 utkartana (excision), nispīdana (compression), cūsana (suction), 560 agni (cauterization), pariseka (affusion), ⁵⁶¹ avagāha (bathing), raktamoksana (bloodletting), 562 vamana (emetics), 563 vireka (purgation), 564 upadhāna (the application of drugs on the incised scalp), 565 hrdayayarana (protection of the heart), 566 añ jana (collyrium), ⁵⁶⁷ nasya (errhine), dhūma (inhalation of medicinal smoke), leha (linctus), ausadha (medicament), pradhamana (blowing drugs into the nose),⁵⁶⁸ pratisārana (local application), ⁵⁶⁹ prativisa (antidote), sam iñāsamsthāpana (re-animation), ⁵⁷⁰ lepa (paste), and mrtasam jīvana (resuscitation) (23.35-37); treatment by means of these methods (23.38-104).⁵⁷¹

Recipes provided with a name are: mṛtasaɪnjīvanāgada (23.54–60),⁵⁷² gandha-hastyagada (23.71–76),⁵⁷³ mahāgandhahastyagada (23.77–94),⁵⁷⁴ and kṣārāgada (23.101–104).⁵⁷⁵

The chapter proceeds with: the danger of poisoning to which a king is exposed; ⁵⁷⁶ the characteristics of a poisoner; ⁵⁷⁷ tests to detect poison in food ⁵⁷⁸; the symptoms of poisons administered in various ways (23.105–122); ⁵⁷⁹ the three kinds of venomous snakes; ⁵⁸⁰ darvīkara, maṇ�alin and rājīmant, who cause excitement of vāta, pitta and kapha respectively; the darvīkara is hooded (phaṇin), the maṇḍalin has a coiled hood (maṇḍalāphaṇa), the rājīmant has a spotted and streaked skin; ⁵⁸¹ their venom excites the mentioned doṣa by being dry and pungent, acid and hot, sweet and cold respectively; the characteristics of their bites are described (23.124–129); ⁵⁸² the characteristics of snakes who are male, female ⁵⁸³ and neither male nor female are

enumerated, followed by the characteristics of persons who are bitten by these three kinds, 584 by a pregnant (garbhinī) snake, 585 and by one who has given birth (sūtā); 586 a four-footed snake, born from a godhā, is called a gaudheyaka and resembles a black snake (krsnasarpa); 587 several other crossbrueds (miśrajāti) are known; 588 the characteristics of serious (bhrśābādha) and less serious bites (23.130-135); the black snake when young, the gonasa 589 of advanced age, and the adult rā jīmant are like āśīvisa (23.136);⁵⁹⁰ the four fangs of venomous anakes, their colours, the quantity of poison they contain (23.137–139); the two kinds of poisonous kītas.⁵⁹¹ arising from the faeces and urine of snakes: those containing dūsīvisa (slowly acting poison) and those containing pranahara (deadly) poison; the characteristics of the bites of these kītas and the symptoms produced (23.140-\$43); the signs and symptoms of a bite by a dūsīvisa spider (lūtā) and of spiders in steneral (23.144-146);⁵⁹² the signs and symptoms of bites and stings by a rat (ākhu, mūṣika), 593 lizard (kṛkalāsaka), 594 scorpion (vrścika), 595 kanabha, 596 uccitinga, 597 frog or toad (mandūka), 598 fish (matsya), leech (jalaukas), ⁵⁹⁹ gecko (grhagodhikā), ⁶⁰⁰ centipede (śatapadī), ⁶⁰¹ gnat (maśaka),602 fly or bee (makṣikā),603 and sthagikā604 (23.147-158); bites leading to death (23.159-161ab); ⁶⁰⁵ factors aggravating the effect of poison (23.162); snakes whose venom has a mild effect (23.163); 606 anger is the releasing factor of venom in snakes (23.164);607 vāta predominates in the poison of ucciting and scorpion, vāta and pitta in that of kītas, kapha in that of the kanapha, etc.; treatment should consist of the prescription of substances counteracting these dosas (23.165-166); the symptoms produced by a poison in which respectively vata, pitta or kapha predominates (23.167–169); treatment of the bites and stings mentioned (23.170–174); 608 the bite of a dog excites the three dosas and corrupts the bodily elements; the symptoms of a dogbite: 609 the bites of other fierce animals (vv&la); poisonous and non-poisonous bites (23.175–178); treatment of diverse kinds of poisoning 610 (23.179–249); 611 the section on treatment mentions a poisonous animal called visvambhara (23.214);612 the condition called sankāvisa, i.e., the anxiety of some one who thinks to have been bitten (by a snake), is described, as well as its treatment (23.221-223);613 things wholesome and wholesome to victims of poisoning (23.224–21:8);⁶¹⁴ the symptoms of poisoning by quadrupeds and its treatment (23,229-232); gars, prepared and administered mixed with food by women afraid to lose the favour of their husband or lover, is also dealt with, followed by the treatment of the victim (23.2)3-240).⁶¹⁵

The chapter ends with measures to be taken immediately after a bite (23.250–253)⁶¹⁶ and a concluding verse (23.254.)

Recipes with a name are pañcaśirīṣāgada (23l212-218)⁶¹⁷ and amṛtaghṛta (23. 242cd-249).⁶¹⁸

Chapter twenty-four is about madātyaya (alcoholism and its complications). 619

Its subjects are: the eulogy of surā, ⁶²⁰ honouæd by gods and sages, used as an oblation in the sautrāmaṇī ritual, ⁶²¹ etc.; the advice to use it properly (24.3–10); the proper way in general of consuming alcoholic drinks (madya) (24.11–20); ⁶²² special prescriptions ⁶²³ for persons with a vātika, paittika or ślaismika constitution (24.21–23), ⁶²⁴ applicable to those who are wealthy or en the path to prosperity (24.24);

gaudika⁶²⁵ and paistika⁶²⁶ drinke are suitable to those with a vatika constitution, mārdvīka⁶²⁷ is suitable to a paittika, mādhava⁶²⁸ to a ślaismika constitution (24.25); the properties and actions of alco10lic drinks made from many different substances (24.26–28); alcoholic drinks, aftergreaching the heart, disturb the ten properties of o jas by their own ten qualities, thus ca using mental disorder (24.29); the ten properties of alcoholic drinks are: laghu (light), usna (hot), tīksna (sharp), sūksma (subtle), amla (sour), vyavāyin (relaxation-promoting), āśuga (quickly acting), rūksa (dry), vikāśin (diffusive), and visada (clear); the ten properties of o jas are: guru (heavy), sīta (cold), mrdu (soft), ślaksna (smooth), bahala (gross), 629 madhura (sweet), sthira (immobile), prasanna (slowly acting), picchila (mucilaginous), and snigdha (oleaginous); the properties of an alcoholic drink counteract those of ojas in the following way: laghu is contrary to guru, usna to śīta, amla to madhura, tīksna to mrdu, āśuga to prasanna, rūksa to snigdha, vyavāivin to sthira, vikāšin to ślaksna, višada to picchila, sūksma to sāndra; 630 thus sattva, residing there (i.e., in the seat of ojas, the heart), is quickly disturbed and brings about mada (intoxication) (24.30-34);631 the heart is the seat of the channels (marga transporting rasa, vata, etc., as well as the seat of sattva, buddhi, the senses, and the primary ojas; 632 for that reason the heart, and the dhātus located there, are pathologically changed by the immoderate use of alcoholic drinks and the damage of oias resulting therefrom (24.35–36): 633 the first stage of intoxication 634 is characterized by stimulation (pratibodhita) of the heart, without any damage (avihata) to the ojasi the ojas is slightly damaged in the second stage, more seriously so in the third stage; a paistika alcoholic drink does not cause damage to the ojas, because the properties vikāśin, rūksa and viśada are not predominant in it (24.37-38); alcoholic drinks produce mental changes (vikāra) of a rājasa and tāmasa character, culminating iru confusion and sleep when used in excess; this pathological state caused by alcohol (madyavibhrama) is called mada (intoxication) (24.39-40); three stages (prathama, madhyama, antya or uttama) of intoxication are described; a special variety, between the second and third stages, occurring in those of a rajasa or tamasa character, is adéled (24.41-51); 635 the dangers of the improper and immoderate use of alcohol, 636 and its merits as a medicinal substance (24.52-60); the beneficial effects of alcohol (24.61-67); 637 alcoholic drinks are harmless when one pays due regard to the three types of foods, to drinks, age, disorders (vyādhi), strength, time, dosa and character (sattva)(this correct use is called yukti; a person with a sattvika character may enjoy all the merits of alcohol (24.68-70); the mind (sattva) is stimulated in the first stage of mada, it loses its lucidity in the second stage, extremely so in the third stage; alcohol exposes the qualities of one's character, as fire exposes the qualities of gold (24.71-73); the sattvika, rajasa and tamasa ways of enjoying drinks (āpāna) (24.74-79); circumstances which make drinking for particular types of persons into a pleasant activity; persons who get drunk by a small quantity of alcohol (24.80-87); the aetiology and symptomatology of madatyaya dominated by vata, pitta, kapha, and the three dosas (44.88-100); 638 the general symptoms of madatyaya (24.101-106); general principles regarding the treatment of madatyaya; kapha is to be counteracted first, pitta and vāta being secondarily involved; a disorder caused by a particular alcoholic beverage is algeviated by the administration of the same drink 639 (24.107–111); ⁶⁴⁰ alcoholic drinks lead to an impaired digestion; the rasa derived from the food (annarasa) acquires for that reason alkalinity (kṣāratā); the symptoms of this disorder are relieved by the consumption of alcohol, since alkalinity is quickly overcome by acidity, ⁶⁴¹ profusely present in alcoholic drinks; alcoholic drinks, which are sour in nature, possess four secondary tastes (anurasa): sweet, astringent, bitter and pungent; their total number of properties is therefore fourteen (24.112–116); the treatment of madātyaya caused by vāta (24.117–135), ⁶⁴² pitta (24.136–163), ⁶⁴³ kapha (24.164–188); ⁶⁴⁴ the ten kinds of samnipāta (24.189); ⁶⁴⁵ treatment in general (24.191–198); ⁶⁴⁶ two disorders, called dhvaṃsaka and vikṣaya, caused by excessive drinking after a period of abstinence; the symptoms and treatment of these disorders, which are curable with difficulty (24.199–205ab); ⁶⁴⁷ the praise of the proper use of alcohol (24.205cd); the advice to remain abstinent (24.206).

Chapter twenty-five is concerned with (inflamed) wounds and ulcers (vrana).⁶⁴⁸

The subjects dealt with are: the two groups of vrana: nija (endogenous), caused by the dosas, and aganta (exogenous), caused by external agents; the causes of āgantuvraņa; 649 differences in treatment (25.5-8); exogenous vraņas which do not heal should be treated like endogenous ones, having regard to the dosa(s) involved (25.9); 650 the characteristics and treatment of vranas caused by vata, pitta, kapha (25.10-16);⁶⁵¹ the classification, etc., of the two groups of vrana (25.17-19); the twenty types of vrana are: suitable to surgical treatment (krtya) or unsuitable to it (akrtya), 652 vitiated (dusta) or not vitiated (adusta), located in a marman (vital spot) or not located there, closed (samvrta) or open, severe (daruna) or mild, discharging (srāvin) or not discharging, containing toxic substances (savisa) or devoid of these, irregular (visamasthita) or regular, provided with pouches (utsangin)⁶⁵³ or devoid of these, elevated (utsanna)⁶⁵⁴ or depressed (25.20–21);⁶⁵⁵ the threefold examination of vrana(s): by inspection (darśana), interrogation (of the patient) (praśna) and palpation (samsparsa) (25.22-23);656 the twelve types of vitiated (dusta) vrana: white (sveta), provided with a narrow opening (avasannavartman),657 provided with a very wide opening (atisthūlavartman),658 very piñ jara,659 dark-blue (nīla) or śyāva,660 covered with pustules (atipidaka), red (rakta), black (krsna), excessively bad-smelling (atipūtika), apparently healing outside, but non-healing and recurring inside (ropya), 661 and bottle-necked (kumbhīmukha) (25.24-25ab);662 these pathological conditions (dosa) are twenty-four in number when classified according to another method (25.25cd):⁶⁶³ the eight seats of vrana(s) are: the skin, vessels (sirā), muscular tissue, fatty tissue. bones, cords (snāyu), vital spots (marman), and the viscera (antarāśraya)⁶⁶⁴ (25.26); ⁶⁶⁵ the eight kinds of smell of a vrana are: like that of ghee, oil, muscle-fat (vasa), pus (pūya) and blood, śyāva, 666 sour, and fetid (pūtika) (25.27);667 the discharges from wounds (vranasrāva) are of fourteen kinds: like serous fluid (lasīkā), water, pus or blood, yellow (hāridra), ruddy (aruna), piñjara, 668 ochre-coloured (kasāya), dark-blue (nīla), yellowish green (harita), oleaginous (snigdha), dry (rūksa), white (sita), and dark (asita) in colour (25.28–29ab);⁶⁶⁹ the experts concerning vrana(s) (vranacintaka) acknowledge sixteen complications (upadrava): visarpa (erysipelas), paksaghāta

(heniphegia or hemiparesis), sirāstambha (occlusion of vessels), apatānaka. 670 moha (mental confusion), unmāda (insanity), vranaruja (pain in the vrana), įvara (fever), trsnā (thirst), hanugraha (lock aw), kāsa (cough), chardi (vomiting), atīsāra (diarrhoea), hikkā (hiccup), śvāsa (shortness of breath), and vepathu (trembling) (25.29cd-31ab); factors which impair the healing of a vrana: snāyukleda (softening of the cords), 671 sirākleda (softening of vessels), gāmbhīrya (deep-seatedness), krmibhaksana (tissue destruction caused by maggots), asthibheda, 672 saśalyatya (the presence of a corpus alienum), savisatva (the presence of toxic substances), sarpana (the tendency to spread), nakhakāsthaprabheda (injury by nails or a piece of wood), carmātighattana (excessive rubbing of the skin), lomātighattana (excessive rubbing of the body hair), mithyābandha (faulty bandaging), atisneha (over-oleation), atibhaisa jyakarsana (emaciation due to over-medication), ajīma (disorders of the digestive process), atibhukta (overeating), viruddhabhojana (consumption of incompatible foods), asatmyabhojana (consumption of unsuitable foods), soka (grief), krodha (anger), divāsvapna (sleeping by day), vyāyāma (physical exercise), maithuna (sexual intercourse), and niskriyatva⁶⁷³ (25.31cd-34); degrees of curability (25.35-37), ⁶⁷⁴ therapeutic measures to be applied first (25.38–39ab); the thirty-six therapeutic measures in cases of vrana: sophaghna (reduction of swelling), 675 the six kinds of śastrakarman (surgical intervention), 676 avapīdana (compression), 677 nirvāpana (reduction of calor), ⁶⁷⁸ samdhāna (union), ⁶⁷⁹ sveda (sudation), ⁶⁸⁰ śamana (pacification of excited dosas), esana (probing), 681 sodhana (purification) by means of decoctions (kasāya), ⁶⁸² ropana (promotion of granulation) by means of decoctions (kasāya), ⁶⁸³ śodhana by means of pastes (pralepana),684 ropana by means of pastes,685 śodhana by means of oils (taila), 686 ropana by means of oils, 687 two kinds of pattracchādana (covering with leaves), 688 two kinds of bandhana (bandaging), 689 bhojya (diet), utsādana (elevation, i.e., the promotion of granulation, which elevates the level of the wound), 690 two kinds of daha (cauterization and the application of caustic fluids), 691 avasādana (depression, i.e., the reduction of too large an amount of granulation tissue), ⁶⁹² dhūpana (fumigation) of a kāthinyakara (promoting firmness of the new tissue) type, ⁶⁹³ dhūpana of a mārdavakara (inducing softness) type, ⁶⁹⁴ ālepana of a kāthinyakara type, 695 alepana of a mardavakara type, 696 avacurnana (the application of a powder), ⁶⁹⁷ varnya (restoration of the normal colour of the skin), ⁶⁹⁸ ropana (healing of a wound or ulcer), and lomarohana (restoration of hair growth)⁶⁹⁹ (25.39cd-43).⁷⁰⁰

The remaining part of the chapter (25.44–121) is concerned with treatment, ⁷⁰¹ mainly guided by the thirty-six therapeutic measures enumerated. ⁷⁰²

Poultices (upanāha) are prescribed for inducing maturation (pāka) of an inflamed wound (25.49–51); the symptoms of an inflamed vraṇa in the maturational stage, when it is called vidagdha, are listed, followed by those when it is fully mature (saṃpakva) (25.52); drugs are described which are helpful in making an inflamed and ripe sore burst (pakvasothaprabhedana; 25.53–54ab). 703

Six types of surgical intervention are mentioned: ⁷⁰⁴ pāṭana (incision), ⁷⁰⁵ vyadhana (puncturing), ⁷⁰⁶ chedana (excision), ⁷⁰⁷ lekhana (scraping), ⁷⁰⁸ pracchana (scarification), ⁷⁰⁹ and sīvana (suturing), ⁷¹⁰ Disorders suitable to be treated by means of each of these procedures are enumerated (25.55–61ab), ⁷¹¹

Two kinds of probes (eṣaṇī) are described: a soft one, made of plant stalks, and a hard one, made of metal (loha) (25.81).

Chapter twenty-six, called trimarmīyacikitsita, gives an account of diseases of the three vital organs (marman) and their treatment. 712 These three chief ones among the 107 marmans are the urinary bladder, heart and head. 713 These organs are seats of the prānas; the latter are therefore affected too by dosas corrupting their seats (26.3–4). 714

The chapter begins with the general aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of udāvarta, ⁷¹⁵ other diseases following in the wake of udāvarta, and the treatment of this disease (26.5–23). ⁷¹⁶ The symptoms and treatment of a related disorder, ānāha, caused by āma, are also described (26.24–26). ⁷¹⁷

The next section discusses diseases affecting the urinary bladder: mūtrakṛcchra and aśmat $\bar{\imath}$. ⁷¹⁸

The general aetiology and pathogenesis of mūtrakṛcchra (dysuria) are described, followed by the symptoms of the types caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, and saṛṇṇipāta 719 (26.32–35); mūtrakṛcchra is said to be of eight types (26.32). 720

Aśmarī (vesical calculi) is described as a disorder arising when vāta, reaching the bladder, desiccates semen (śukra), urine, pitta or kapha; its origin resembles that of gallstones (rocanā) in cattle (26.36); ⁷²¹ the various forms of this disease and their symptoms are discussed; ⁷²² vesical calculi may be disintegrated through the action of vāta, in which case the disorder is called śarkarā (gravel) ⁷²³ (26.37–44); the treatment of mūtrakṛcchra brought about by vāta, pitta, kapha and the three doṣas is discussed (26.45–58), ⁷²⁴ followed by the treatment of aśmarī ⁷²⁵ and śarkarā (26.59–76); ⁷²⁶ surgical extraction of a calculus should be resorted to in refractory cases (26.68); ⁷²⁷ a type of mūtrakṛcchra arising from obstruction to (the flow of) semen is referred to (26.69: reto'bhighātaprabhava), as well as a type arising from blood (26.73–75). ⁷²⁸

The aetiology (26.77), ⁷²⁹ general symptomatology (26.78), ⁷³⁰ and the symptoms of the types of hrdroga (heart disease), ⁷³¹ caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, saṃnipāta and parasites (kṛmi), are described (26.79–80); ⁷³² the treatment of hrdroga is dealt with (26.81–103). ⁷³³

The general aetiology of pratiśyāya (nasal catarrh)⁷³⁴ is discussed, followed by the symptoms of the types caused by vāta, pitta and kapha; when all the three doṣas are involved, it is called pīnasa (26.104–107ab). ⁷³⁵ Aggravation of the disease, due to unwholesome diet and neglect, converts it into duṣṭapratiśyāya, ⁷³⁶ which may lead to the following diseases: kṣavathu (sneezing), nāṣāšoṣa (dryness of the nose), ⁷³⁷ pratīnāha (nasal obstruction), parisrava (purulent rhinitis), ghrāṇapūtitva (a foul smell from the nose), ⁷³⁸ apīnasa, ⁷³⁹ (nāṣā)pāka (inflammation of the nose), ⁷⁴⁰ (nāṣā)śotha (swelling of the nose), (nāṣā-)arbuda (growths in the nose), pūyarakta (purulent and sanguinolent rhinitis), arūṃsi (boils), ⁷⁴¹ diseases of the head, ears and eyes, khālitya (alopecia), ⁷⁴² conditions making the hair brown (haribhāva) or tawny (arjūnabhāva), tṛṣ (thirst), śvā-sa (shortness of breath), kāṣā (cough), iyara (fever), raktapitta (haemorrhagic disorders), vaisvarya (disorders of the voice), ⁷⁴³ and śoṣa (desiccation) (26.107cd–109); ⁷⁴⁴ these diseases, from duṣṭapratiśyāya up to arūṇṣṣi, are described (26.110–117ab); ⁷⁴⁵ a nasal disease called dīpta, which makes the nose flamingly red (pradīpta), is added to

the list (26.117cd).

Five types of śiroroga (diseases of the head) are described: caused by $v\bar{a}tz$, pitta, kapha, samnip $\bar{a}ta$, and parasites (krimi) (26.118). ⁷⁴⁶

Four types of mukharoga (diseases of the oral cavity) are described: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, and saṃnipāta (26.119–122ab);⁷⁴⁷ their number is sixty-four ⁷⁴⁸ vith regard to their location (saṃsthāna), corruptible element(s) affected (dūṣya), synıptoms (ākṛti),⁷⁴⁹ and name; the aetiology, symptomatology and treatment of these six y-four diseases are discussed in surgical textbooks (śālākyatantra); the treatment of the four types mentioned will be described in the present treatise (26.122cd–123).⁷⁵⁰

Arocaka (anorexia) is of several types.⁷⁵¹ The symptoms of this disease when caused by vāta, pitta and kapha, are described. Loss of appetite is the only symptom of the psychogenic varieties, brought about by grief, anxiety, greed, anger, disquisting smells, and foods which are disgusting to look at (26.124–126).⁷⁵²

Four types of karņaroga (ear disease) are described; caused by vāta, pitta, kapha and all three dosas (26.127–128). 753

Four types of netraroga (eye disease) are described: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha and all three doṣas; the treatises on śālākya deal with ninety-six of these diseases; the present treatise does not attempt to discuss them, because they belong to the comain of others (parādhikāra) (26.129–131).⁷⁵⁴

Khalati (baldness) arises when the bodily heat (tejas), together with vāta, etc., bums the scalp (keśabhūmi); when this action is mild, the hair turns grey (palita) or brown (hariprabhatva) (26.132). ⁷⁵⁵

The diseases of the supraclavicular region (ūrdhvajatrūtthagada) have partially been described now in order to fill up a lacuna (asūnyatārtha) (26.133ab). 756

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to the treatment of pratisyāya, pīnasa, and other diseases of the nose (26.134–157), 757 diseases of the head (25.158–186), 758 diseases of the teeth, oral cavity and throat (26.187–214), 759 arocaka (25.215–220), 760 diseases of the ears (26.221–230), 761 diseases of the eyes (26.231–262 ab), 762 baldness, 763 greying of the hair, wrinkles, etc. (26.262cd–282), 764 and the five types of svarabheda (disorders of the voice): caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, and saṃ nipāta (26.283–290). 765

Recipes with a name are: anutaila (26.239–241ab), ⁷⁶⁶ māyūraghṛta (25.158–165), ⁷⁶⁷ mahāmāyūraghṛta (26.166–174), ⁷⁶⁸ kālakacūrṇa (26.194cd-196ab), ⁷⁶⁹ pītakacūrṇa (26.196cd–198ab), ⁷⁷⁰ khadirādiguṭikā and -taila (26.206–214), sukhāvatī varti (26.252–253), ⁷⁷¹ dṛṣṭipradā varti (26.254–256ab), ⁷⁷² and mahān lataila (26.268cd–276ab). ⁷⁷³

Chapter twenty-seven, on ūrustambha, ⁷⁷⁴ begins with Agniveśa asking his teacher whether there is a disease not amenable to treatment by means of pañcakarman and nevertheless curable. Ātreya replies that ūrustambha is such a disease (27.3–7).

The aetiology, pathogenesis, symptoms and prodromes of this disease are described; when āma (undigested matter), which has accumulated in the viscera, has, together with medas, obstructed vāta and the other dosas, it descends, owing to its heaviness, to the thighs (ūru) and lower parts of the legs, impairing their mobility;

the disease is called ūrustambha because kapha, together with medas, overpowers vāta and pitta, which leads to restricted mobility (stambhayati) on account of the immobility (sthairya) and coldness (śaitya) (of kapha) (27.8–15). If treated like a vātavyādhi, it aggravates further, presenting as additional symptoms weakness (sadana) and numbness (supti) of the legs and problems with raising (uddharaṇa) them (27.16). More symptoms are enumerated (27.17–18). To Degrees of curability are described (27.19). The reasons for the non-applicability of pañcakarınan are given: āma and kapha, when located in a seat of vāta (such as the thighs), cannot be eliminated by means of these procedures (27.20–24).

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to the internal (27.25-48ab) and external treatment (27.48cd-57) of ūrustambha, ending with some general rules concerning its management (27.58-61). ⁷⁷⁶

The only recipe with a name is astakatvarataila (27.47).

Chapter twenty-eight is concerned with the group of diseases called vātavyādhi (wind disease). 777

The chapter opens with the praise of vāyu.⁷⁷⁸ Someone, whose vāyu can move without any impediment, remains in its own seat and maintains its normal state (prakṛti), may live, without any disease, for a hundred years ⁷⁷⁹ (28.3–4).

The five kinds of vāyu are discussed next. 780

The seats of prāga are beed, chest, threat, tongue, oral cavity, and pose; if

The seats of prāṇa are head, chest, throat, tongue, oral cavity and nose; its actions are spitting (sthīvana), sneezing (kṣavathu), eructation (udgāra), respiration (śvāsa), deglutition of the food (āhāra), etc.

The seats of udāna are the umbilical region, chest and throat, its actions are speaking (vākpravṛtti), effort (prayatna), vitality (ūrjas), strength (bala), complexion (varṇa), etc.

Samāna, seated in the channels transporting sweat, doşas and water, and located near to the internal fire (antaragni), bestows strength on that fire.

Vyāna, which moves swiftly and pervades the whole body, brings abut motion (gati), extension (prasārana), contraction (āksepa), blinking, etc.

The seats of apāna are the testicles, bladder, penis, umbilical region, thighs, groins, and ano-rectal region (guda); staying in the intestines too, it eliminates semen, urine, faeces, the menstrual discharge (ārtava) and the (full grown) foetus.

When staying in their normal seats and functioning together, they perform their functions, thus sustaining the body and preserving its healthy state (28.5–11); ⁷⁸¹ when moving on a wrong path and being deranged, they afflict the body with disorders relating to their seats and actions, and may quickly take life away. Although the disorders they bring about are innumerable, the main ones, i.e., the eighty disorders beginning with cracking of the nails (nakhabheda), have been mentioned in the Sūtra(sthāna). ⁷⁸² They will now be described, along with their causes and treatment, with regard to vāyu, both when singly (affected) in a particular seat and when covered (āvṛta) (by another dosa) (28.12–14).

The actiology of vāta diseases in general is dealt with (28.15-19ab). The not fully developed (avyakta) signs of these diseases are the prodromes, the fully developed

(vyakta) signs are the specific symptoms (ātmarūpa), while slight signs indicate subsidence (apāya) of the disease (28.19cd-2)ab).

The general symptoms of excited vā;a are enumerated (28.20cd-23). Peculiarities concerning cause(s) and location lead to particularities of the diseases which arise (28.24ab).

The symptoms of the disorders which appear when corrupted vāta has become lodged in a particular part or constituent of the body, or the whole body, are dealt with in the next section. The parts mentioned are: the viscera (koṣṭha), the whole body, ano-rectal region(guda), receptacle of undigested food (āmāśaya), ⁷⁸³ receptacle of digested food (pakvāśaya), ⁷⁸⁴ sens organs (indriya), ⁷⁸⁵ skin (tvac), ⁷⁸⁶ blood (rakta), muscular and fatty tissues (māṃsa and medas), bones and bone marrow (asthi and majjā), semen (śukra), cords (snāyu), vessels (sirā), and junctures (sandhi) ⁷⁸⁷ (28.24cd-37).

Several specific diseases are described in the section that follows. These diseases are: ardita (facial paresis) (28.38–42); ⁷⁸⁸ manyāstambha (28.43a-c), ⁷⁸⁹ antarāyāma (28.43d-45c), ⁷⁹⁰ dhanuḥstambha sor bahirāyama (28.45d-48), ⁷⁹¹ hanugraha (lockjaw) (28.49–50ab), ⁷⁹² ākṣepaka (convulsions) (28.50cd-51ab), ⁷⁹³ daṇḍaka (28.51cd-52ab), ⁷⁹⁴ curable and incurable forms of the diseases mentioned (ardita up to daṇḍaka) (28.52cd-53ab), pakṣavadla (hemiplegia) (28.53cd-54), ⁷⁹⁵ ekāṅgaroga (paresis or paralysis of one limb) ⁷⁹⁶ and sarvāṅgaroga (tetraplegia) (28.55), ⁷⁹⁷ gṛḍhrasī (sciatica) and its two varieties (28.56-57ab), ⁷⁹⁸ and khallī (28.57cd). ⁷⁹⁹

The remaining disorders should be known from the signs characteristic of the seat (of $v\bar{a}ta$) (28.58ab); the combination of $v\bar{a}ta$ with pitta, etc., should also be taken into consideration (28.58cd).

Excitation of vāta comes about through deficiency of dhātus and obstruction of pathways (mārgāvaraṇa), 800 vāta, pitta and kapha move through all the channels; only vāta, due to its subtleness, is able to make the other two move about; when excited, it agitates the other two, hurling them to various places, where, due to this, diseases appear, brought about by pathways which are obstructed, thus leading to drying up of rasa, etc. (28.59–61ab). 801

The symptoms of the disorders are described which are the result of vāta being obstructed (or: covered, āvṛta) by pitta, kapha, blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, ⁸⁰² bone tissue, bone marrow, semen, food (anna), urine or faeces (28.61cd-72ab). ⁸⁰³

Curable with difficulty or incurable are, due to their deep-seatedness: luxation of joints (sandhicyuti), ⁸⁰⁴ lockjaw (hanustalnbha), contractures (kuñcana), ⁸⁰⁵ kyphoscoliosis (kubjatā), ⁸⁰⁶ ardita, hemiplegia (palesāghāta), ⁸⁰⁷ desiccation (saṃśoṣa) ⁸⁰⁸ of parts of the body, ⁸⁰⁹ pangutva, ⁸¹⁰ khudavātatā; ⁸¹¹ stambhana, ⁸¹² ādhyavāta, ⁸¹³ and the diseases caused by vāta when lodged in benes or bone marrow. These diseases may be treated when of recent origin, free from complications, and occurring in strong patients (28.72cd-74), ⁸¹⁴

The treatment of the diseases described is discussed ⁸¹⁵ (28.75–198). ⁸¹⁶ Additional disorders referred to are: desiccation of a foetus (28.95) and of young children (28.95), vāta lodged in the cardiac region (28.96), umbilical region (28.97), arms (28.98) and head (28.98).

Recipes provided with a name are: balātaila (28.148cd-157ab), 817 amṛtādyataila (28.157cd-164), 818 rāsnātaila 819 (28.165-166), 820 mūlakādyataila (28.167-169), 821 vṛṣamūlāditaila (28.170-171), mūlakataila (28.172-176ab), 822 and laśunataila (28.177).

The last part of the chapter begins with syndromes occurring when one of the five kinds of vāta covers another kind, thus obstructing it in its course.

Twenty types are distinguished. 824 The symptoms of four varieties of mutual covering (anyonyāvaraṇa) are described, together with their treatment: vyāna covered by prāṇa, prāṇa covered by vyāna, samāna covered by prāṇa, prāṇa covered by samāna (28.199–206ab), followed by a series of eight varieties: udāna covered by prāṇa, prāṇa covered by udāna, apāna covered by prāṇa, prāṇa covered by udāna, vyāna covered by apāna, vyāna covered by vyāna, vyāna covered by apāna, vyāna covered by udāna (28.206cd–217ab); the other varieties can be diagnosed and treated by taking into consideration the seats and functional changes of the kinds of vāta involved (28.217cd–219ab). Some general principles concerning the treatment of this type of disorders are expounded (28.219cd–221ab).

Finally, syndromes are described which result from one of the five kinds of vāta being covered by pitta or kapha (28.221cd-231ab). Syndromes resulting from covering by both pitta and kapha should be properly diagnosed (28.231cd-233ab).

Serious conditions are those in which prāṇa or udāna are covered by kapha and pitta, since life is dependent on prāṇa and strength on udāna (28.233cd-235ab). Circumstances leading to incurability are mentioned (28.235cd-236ab). Complications of covered types of vāta are cardiac diseases (hṛdroga), abscesses (vidradhi), splenomegalia (phṛhan), gulma, and diarrhoea (28.236cd-237). The treatment of the disorders by covered vāta is discussed (28.238-245).

The chapter ends with comparing the movements of vāta, pitta and kapha to those of air, sun and moon (28.246).

Chapter twenty-nine discusses the disease called vātaśonita. 825

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology and pathogenesis of vătaśoṇita; the disease arises when increased (vivṛddha) vāta, being obstructed (āvārita) in its course by (independently)⁸²⁶ increased blood, corrupts all the blood; its names are vātaśoṇita, khuḍa, ⁸²⁷ vātabalāsa and āḍhyavāta ⁸²⁸ (29.3–11); the seats of vātaśoṇita: hands, feet, fingers, and all the joints (sandhi); it begins in hands and feet, whence it spreads over the body (29.12); due to the subtleness (saukṣmya) and ubiquity (sarvasaratva) of vāta, and due to the liquidity (dravatva) and flowing nature (saratva) of blood, it spreads through the vessels (sirāyana) over the body, gets stuck in the joints, and causes, in combination with pitta, etc., various painful sensations (vedanā), hard to endure, in those very joints (29.13–15); ⁸²⁹ the prodromes (29.16–18); ⁸³⁰ the two types of the disease: uttāna, ⁸³¹ located in skin and muscular tissue, and gambhīra, ⁸³² located in the interior (dhātus); the symptoms of the two types; ⁸³³ cases where the symptoms of both types are found (29.19–23); ⁸³⁴ the symptoms of vātaśoṇita with a predominance of vāta, blood, pitta or kapha, and with a predominance of two or three doṣas (29.24–29); ⁸³⁵ degrees of curability (29.30); complications and their influence on the degree of cur-

ability (29.31-34);836 treatment 837 (29.35-162).838

Recipes provided with a name are: pārūṣakaghṛta (29.58–60), ⁸³⁹ jīvanīyasarpis (29.61–70), ⁸⁴⁰ madhuparṇṇṣāditaila (29.91–95), sukumārakataila (29.96–102), ⁸⁴¹ amṛtādyataila (29.103–109), ⁸⁴² mahāpadmataila (29.110–113), ⁸⁴³ khuddākapadmakataila (29.114–115ab), ⁸⁴⁴ śatapākamadhukataila (29.115cd–118), ⁸⁴⁵ sahasrapāka- or śatapākabalātaila (29.119–120), ⁸⁴⁶ and pindataila (29.123).

Chapter thirty, on yonivyāpad⁸⁴⁷, is concerned with diseases of the female genital tract⁸⁴⁸ and some analogous disorders in males.

The subjects dealt with are: the general aetiology of the twenty types of yonivyāpad 849 (30.7-8); the aetiology and symptomatology of yonivyāpad 850 caused by vata⁸⁵¹, pitta⁸⁵², kapha⁸⁵³ and all three dosas⁸⁵⁴ (30.9–15); 855 the aetiology and symptomatology of sixteen more types of yonivyāpad: sāsr jā 856 (30.16), arajaskā 857 (30.17), acaranā ⁸⁵⁸ (30.18), ⁸⁵⁹ aticaranā ⁸⁶⁰ (30.19), prākcaranā ⁸⁶¹ (30.20), upaplutā ⁸⁶² (30.21-22), pariplutā 863 (30.23-24), udāvartinī 864 (30.25-26), karninī 865 (30.27-28ab), putraghm⁸⁶⁶ (30.28cd-29ab), antarmukhī⁸⁶⁷ (30.29cd-31ab), sūcīmukhī⁸⁶⁸ (30.31cd-32ab), yonimukhasosa⁸⁶⁹ (30.32cd-33ab), vāminī⁸⁷⁰ (30.33cd-34ab), sandhī⁸⁷¹ (30.34cd-35ab), and mahāyoni⁸⁷² (30.35cd-37ab); the twenty types of yomivyāpad prevent conception and lead to various other disorders (30.37cd-39ab); sāsriā and arajaskā are caused by pitta, pariplutā and vāminī by vāta and pitta, upaplutā and karninī by vāta and kapha, the remaining ones by vāta (30.39cd-40); 873 treatment of vomvyāpad (30.41-86ab);⁸⁷⁴ treatment of raktayoni = asrgdara⁸⁷⁵ (bleeding from the genital tract) and its dosic types; treatment of vonidosa = raiodosa⁸⁷⁶ (discharges from the genital tract) (30.86cd-99); 877 treatment of all kinds of yonivyāpad (30.100-126ab); 878 the eight sukradosas 879 (defects of the semen); semen that is phemla (frothy), tanu (thin), rūksa (dry), vivarna (of an abnormal colour), pūti (foulsmelling), picchila (mucilaginous), anyadhātūpasamsrsta (combined with other bodily constituents) 880 and avasadin (sinking when placed in water); the characteristics of semen affected by one of the dosas; the characteristics of normal semen (30.127cd-146ab);⁸⁸¹ the treatment of the disorders mentioned (30.146cd-153ab);⁸⁸² the four types of Idaibya (disorders of potency): brought about by injury (upaghāta) to the seed (bīja) or the pemis (dhvaja), 883 old age (jarā), and deficiency (samksaya) of the semen (sukra); the aetiology and symptoms of each of these types (30.153cd-187); 884 some regard klaibya caused by injury to the penis (dhvajabhanga) and deficiency of the semen as incurable, as well as the types caused by amputation (cheda) of the penis and removal of the testicles (vrsanotpātana) (30.188); 885 a kind of incurable impotency is described that is due to a disorder of the parental seed (bījadosa) and transgressions in previous existences (30.189-191ab); the treatment of these disorders 886 (30.191cd-204ab);887 the general aetiology and pathogenesis of the group of disorders called pradara or asrgdara (menorrhagia, metrorrhagia, and related disorders)⁸⁸⁸ (30.204cd-209); 889 the specific aetiology and symptomatology of pradara 890 caused by vāta, 891 pitta,892 kapha893 and samnipāta (30.210-224),894 the characteristics of a normal menstrual discharge (ārtava) (30.225-226); 895 general principles of the treatment of pradara (30.227-228); 896 the general aetiology and pathogenesis of the eight kinds of

disorders of the breast milk (kṣīradoṣa) (30.229–236); ⁸⁹⁷ the aetiology of kṣīradoṣa caused by vāta, pitta and kapha, the characteristics of the milk in these types, and the children's disorders resulting from drinking this milk (30.237–250); the treatment of these disorders (30.251–282ab); ⁸⁹⁸ general rules for the treatment of children (30.282cd–287).

The remaining part of the chapter forms an appendix to the Cikitsāsthāna. It begins with the statement that the treatment of all disorders has now been dealt with (30.288), followed by two verses of Dṛḍhabala, in which he informs the reader that seventeen chapters of the Cikitsāsthana of the Agniveśatantra, as revised by Caraka, as well as the whole of the Kalpasthāna and Siddhisthāna, being not available, were added by him, in order to complete the treatise (30.289–290).

General rules concerning treatment are formulated with a view to the management of those diseases which are left undescribed. All remedial meausres are said to require due consideration of place (deśa), time (kāla), ⁸⁹⁹ dosage (pramāṇa), suitability (sātmya) and unsuitability (asātmya)⁹⁰⁰ (30.291–293). These elements are more elaborately discussed: deśa (30.294–295), kāla (30.296–312), praṃāṇa (30.313–314), sātmya and asātmya (30.315–333). The rules are illustrated by means of numerous examples.

Some of these examples relate to the appropriate time of administration of a drug: in disorders of apāna a drug should be taken before a meal, in disorders of samāna during a meal, in disorders of vyāna after breakfast, in disorders of udāna after dinner, in disorders of prāna repeatedly during a meal (30.299–300ab). 901

The rules concerning suitability mention various peoples and their dietary habits; the Bāhlīkas, Pahlavas, 902 Cīnas, 903 Śūlīkas, 904 Yavanas, 905 Śakas, Prācyas, Saindhavas, Aśmakas, 906 Avantikas, 907 the inhabitants of the Malaya region, the inhabitants of the South, North-West and Madhyadesa (30.315–320ab). 908

Examples are given of treatments to be applied in special cases, where the general rules are not valid (30.321cd-325).

Chapter 7 Kalpasthāna

Chapter one¹ (madanakalpa²) begins with an exposition on the contents of the Kalpasthāna: emetic (vamanadravya) and purgative drugs (virecanadravya) will be discussed, their combination with other substances, their way of preparation and administration, etc. (1.3).³

The terms vamana and virecana are defined; both are collectively known as virecana (1.4). The emetic and purgative actions of particular drugs are explained with regard to their properties, the mahābhūtas which are predominantly present in them, their vīrya and prabhāva, and their physiological effects (1.5).

Six hundred emetic (chapters 1-6) and purgative (chapters 7-12) preparations will be described (1.6), which are the most suitable ones when endowed with excellency regarding place (of origin), time (of collection), properties and containers (bhājana) (1.7).

The place of origin (deśa) is of three types: arid (jāṅgala), marshy (ānūpa) and intermediate (sādhāraṇa); ⁵ flowery descriptions of these types of country are given (1.8). ⁶ Recommended for medicinal purposes are plants growing in a sādhāraṇa or jāṅgala region, if particular unfavourable circumstances are absent (1.9). ⁷ Particularly commendable properties are mentioned; the seasons in which particular plant parts should be collected are specified; rituals to be observed are referred to ⁸ (1.10). ⁹ The most suitable ways of storage are described; ¹⁰ daily worship is required again (1.11). ¹¹ The vehicles to be given together with a drug, dependent on the predominant doṣa, are enumerated (1.12).

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to the fruits of madana, the seeds (pi-ppalī) of which are the best emetic drug, the way the fruits should be collected, prepared for use, combined with other drugs, etc. ¹²

A total of 133 formulations with madana as the chief ingredient are described: nine kinds in a kaṣāya (1.14), eight kinds of mātrā ¹³ (1.16), five preparations with milk and ghee (1.17–18), one kind of snuff (ghreya) (1.19), one kind of phāṇita ¹⁴ (1.20), one kind of cūrṇa (1.20), six kinds of varti ¹⁵ (1.21), twenty kinds of leha ¹⁶ (1.22), twenty kinds of utkārikā ¹⁷ (1.23), twenty kinds of modaka ¹⁸ (1.23), sixteen kinds of śaṣkulī ¹⁹ (1.24–25), sixteen kinds of pūpa ²⁰ (1.24–25), ten kinds of ṣāḍava ²¹ and other types of preparation (1.26). The synonyms of madana are enumerated (1.27).

Chapter two is devoted to preparations with the fruits and flowers of jīmūta as their chief ingredient.²²

The synonyms of jīmūta are enumerated (2.3), followed by the general indications

for the administration of this drug (2.4).

A total of thirty-nine formulations are described: six preparations with milk (2.5-7), one with surāmaṇ�a 23 (2.8), twelve in a kaṣāya (2.9-10ab), seven in a kaṣāya (2.10cd-11ab), eight kinds of mātrā 24 (2.11cd), four in a rasa (2.12), and one ghee (2.13).

Chapter three deals with preparations containing various parts of ikṣvāku as their chief ingredient. ²⁵

The synonyms of ikṣvāku are enumerated (3.3cd-4ab), followed by the general indications for its use in medicine (3.4cd-5ab).

Forty-five formulations are described: eight preparations in milk (3.5cd-6 and 7cd-10ab), one in surāmaṇḍa (3.7ab), one in mastu²⁶ (3.10cd), one in takra²⁷ (3.11ab), one kind of snuff (ghreya) (3.11cd-12ab), one with guḍa²⁸ and palala²⁹ (3.12cd), one oil (3.13ab), one ghee (3.13ab), six with a successively increasing number of ikṣvāku seeds in a decoction of one of the drugs of the phalādi group³⁰ (3.13cd-14ab), one in a kaṣāya of yaṣṭyāhva³¹ and eight in a kaṣāya of one of the drugs of the kovidārādi group³² (3.14cd), eight mātrāyogas³³ (3.15ab), five kinds of leha (3.15cd-19ab)³⁴, one in a mantha³⁵ (3.19cd-20ab), and one in māmsarasa (meat broth) (3.20c-f).

Chapter four deals with preparations containing various parts of dhāmārgava as their chief ingredient. 36

The synonyms of dhāmārgava are enumerated (4.3), followed by the general indications for its use (4.4–5ab).

Sixty formulations are described: nine kinds of gulikā³⁷, made of young leaves (pravāla, pallava), to be taken together with a kaṣāya of madhuka³⁸ or one of the drugs of the kovidārādi group³⁹ (4.6), four preparations in milk (4.7), one in surā (4.7), nine in a kaṣāya of madhuka or one of the drugs of the kovidārādi group (4.7–9ab), one ruixed with food (4.9cd), one snuff (ghreyayoga) (4.10), ⁴⁰ twelve kinds of varti soaked in the liquid from the dung of various animals (4.11–12), ten kinds of leha (4.13–15ab), one kalka (4.15cd), eleven in a kaṣāya (4.16–18ab), and one ghee (4.18cd).

Chapter five deals with preparations containing vatsaka seeds as their chief ingredient. 41

The names of vatsaka and its seeds (indrayava) are enumerated (5.4). The male and female plants are described (5.5). The general indications for the use of the drug are given (5.6).

Eighteen formulations are described: nine in a kaṣāya of madhuka or one of the kovidārādi drugs (5.7-9ab),⁴² a cūrṇa,⁴³ to be taken in combination with one of five kaṣāyas (5.9cd-10) or one of three watery solutions (5.11ab) or together with kṛśara⁴⁴ (5.11cd).

Chapter six deals with preparations of various parts of kṛtavedhana. 45

The names of krtavedhana are listed and its chief indications are mentioned (6.3–4).

A total of sixty formulations are described: four preparations in milk, etc. (6.5ab), ⁴⁶ one in surā (6.5ab), nine in a kaṣāya of one of the drugs of the madhukādi group⁴⁷ (6.5cd–6ab), nine in a kaṣāya of one of the drugs of the āragvadhādi group⁴⁸ (6.6cd–7), ten in a picchā⁴⁹ prepared with the cūrṇa of śālmalī roots ⁵⁰ (6.8ab), six kinds of varti (6.8cd), one ghee (6.8cd), eight kinds of leha (6.9–10), seven preparations in a meat broth (6.11–12ab), and one in sugarcane juice (iksurasa) (6.12cd).

Chapter seven deals with preparations containing syama or trivṛt51 as their chief ingredient. 52

The roots of trivṛt constitute the best among the purgative drugs (7.3ab). The synonyms of trivṛt(ā) are enumerated (7.3cd-4). Its properties and actions are described (7.5-6).⁵³ The differences between the roots of the śyāmā and aruṇā types of trivṛt are discussed, including the indications for the preferential use of one of both types (7.7-9).⁵⁴ The way of collecting and preparing the roots is described (7.10-11).

One hundred or more formulations are described: nine preparations in amla, ⁵⁵ four kinds of urine, sauvīraka, ⁵⁶ tuṣodaka, ⁵⁷ prasannā, ⁵⁸ or a kaṣāya of triphalā (7.12cd–13), twelve in a saline solution (7.14), ⁵⁹ eighteen preparations with cow's urine (7.15–17ab), ⁶⁰ two with madhuka (liquorice) (7.17cd), ⁶¹ fourteen of the same type as the preceding ones, but with jīvaka and thirteen other drugs (7.18–20ab), seven preparations in milk and six other substances (7.20cd–21ab), eight kinds ofleha (7.21cd–27, 29–32, 37–39), ⁶² four kinds of sitāyoga (7.28), ⁶³ five preparations in a pānaka, ⁶⁴ meat broth (rasa), ⁶⁵ yūṣa, ⁶⁶ in modakas, ⁶⁷ or in a rāgaṣāḍava⁶⁸ (7.33–35), ⁶⁹ five kinds of modaka (7.36–55), ⁷⁰ six preparations to be prescribed in accordance with the seasons (7.56–64), ⁷¹ two kinds of tarpaṇa (7.65–66ab), four in milk and ghee (7.66cd–68), ⁷² two kinds of alcoholic preparation ⁷³ (7.69–71), ⁷⁴ one in sauvīraka (7.72), ⁷⁵ one in tuṣodaka (7.73), ⁷⁶ ten in a ṣāḍava and other types of preparation (7.74). ⁷⁷

Chapter eight deals with preparations containing caturangula (= āragvadha) as their chief ingredient. 78

The synonyms of āragvadha are enumerated (8.3). Its properties and the main indications for its use are mentioned (8.4-5),⁷⁹ followed by the way of collection and preparation of its fruits; the pulp (majjā) of the fruits is the substance employed for medicinal purposes (8.6-7).

Twelve formulations are described: one in grape juice (8.8–9ab), one in surāmanda (8.9cd), one in a sīdhu made of kola (8.9cd), one in dadhimanda (8.10), one in the juice ofāmalaka (8.10), one in sauvīraka (8.10), one in a kaṣāya of trivṛt (8.11), one in a kaṣāya of bilva (8.11), one kind of leha (8.12), two kinds of ghee (8.13–14), and one kind of ariṣṭa (8.15).

Chapter nine deals with preparations containing tilvaka as their chief ingredient. 8€

The synonyms of tilvaka are enumerated (9.3ab). The way of preparing its root bark (mūlatvac) for medicinal use is described (9.3cd-5).

Sixteen formulations are described: five preparations in dadhi, 81 takra, surāmanda, urine and sīdhu (9.6).82 one in sauvīraka (9.7–8ab), one kind of surā (9.8cd), one kind

of ariṣṭa (9.9–10ab), one in a kaṣāya of kampillaka (9.10cd–1 lab), three kinds of leha (9.11cd–13), and four kinds of ghee (9.14–16).

Chapter ten deals with preparations containing sudhā (= snuh) as their chief ingredient. 83

Sudhā is the most drastic (tīkṣṇatama) among the purgatives; on account of its harmful effects when improperly prescribed, it is contra-indicated in particular groups of patients (10.3–4). Its indications are discussed (10.5–7ab). Two varieties are distinguished: having a small and a large number of thoms (kaṇṭaka); the latter variety is the best one for medicinal use (10.7cd–8ab). The synonyms of sudhā are enumerated (10.8cd). The way of collecting its latex (kṣīra) is dealt with (10.9).

Twenty formulations are described: a series of seven preparations in sauvīraka, tuṣodaka, juice of kola, juice of āmalaka, surā, dadhimaṇḍa, and juice of mātuluṅga (10.10–12ab), one kind of ghee (10.12cd–13), one in meat broth (10.12cd–13), one kind of pānaka (10.14), one kind of snuff (ghreya) (10.15–17), one kind of leha (10.18), one in yūṣa, one in meat broth, one in ghee (10.19ab), one with dried fish, one with dried meat (10.19cd), two in ghee (10.20), and one in surā (10.20).

Chapter eleven deals with preparations containing saptalā and śańkhinī as their chief ingredients. ⁸⁴

The names of these two plants are enumerated (11.3). Their properties and indications are listed (11.4). The dehusked (nistuṣīkṛta) seeds of śaṅkhinī and the roots of saptalā are the medicinally used parts (11.5).

Thirty-nine formulations are described: sixteen kinds of kaṣāya (11.6-8), 85 six kinds of oil (11.9-11), 86 eight kinds of ghee (11.12-15), 87 three kinds of leha (11.16ab), 88 one kind of surā (11.16cd), 89 one in a kaṣāya of kampillaka (11.16cd), 90 and four with sauvīraka and tuṣodaka (11.17). 91

The first part of chapter twelve (12.1-40) deals with preparations containing dantī and dravantī as their chief ingredients. ⁹²

The synonyms of these two plants are listed (12.3). The roots of dant \bar{i} and dravant \bar{i} which are most suitable to medicinal use are described (12.4), followed by their way of preparation (12.5), ⁹³ properties and actions (12.6).

Forty-eight formulations are described: three preparations in dadhi, takra and surāmaṇḍa (12.7ab), five with priyāla, kola, badara, pīlu and sīdhu (12.7cd), ⁹⁴ three with a broth made with the meat of cow, deer and goat (12.8), ⁹⁵ three with a fatty substance (sneha) (12.9-10), six kinds of leha (12.11-15), one kind of cūrṇa (12.16), one preparation in the stem (kāṇḍa) of the sugarcane (12.17), three in a mudga soup (rasa), ⁹⁶ in a broth made with the meat of Jāngala animals, and a māṣa soup (yūṣa) (12.19), one kind of utkārikā (12.20), one kind of modaka (12.21ab), one in the form of na alcoholic drink (madya) (12.21cd), ⁹⁹ one, in the form of various sweets (bhakṣya), prepared with a kaṣāya of dantī and fried in dantī oil (12.22), one kind of cūrṇa (12.23-26), one kind of modaka (12.27-29), five kinds of āsava (12.30-34), ¹⁰⁰ one in sauvīraka (12.35ab),

one in taşodaka (12.35ab), one kind of surā (12.35cd), 101 one in a kaṣāya ofkampillaka (12.35cd), 102 and five in a ghee. 103

Thr æ hundred and fifty-five emetic and two hundred and forty-five purgative prej arations have thus been described, making a total of six hundred; all these prej arations are mainly based on fifteen drugs (12.41–42).

The remainingpart of the chapter is devoted to a number of interconnected subjects. Some verses deal with general principles relating to compound recipes, the interaction of drugs, their potentiation (balādhāna), etc. (12.43–50). 104

The next group of verses (12.51–86) is concerned with general rules relating to the realment of patients with emetic and purgative measures. These evacuative measures are of three types: drastic (tīkṣṇa), of medium strength (madhya), and mild (mṛdu) (12.51–57). Diseases are of three types too: severe (tīkṣṇa), of medium strength (malhya), and mild (mṛdu), according to the number of symptoms present (12.58).

Dosages are important in this context, which explains that the units of weight (māna, pramāṇa, parimāṇa) are discussed (12.87–97): 6 dhvaṃśī 105 = 1 marīci; 6 marīci = 1 sa ṣaṇa; 8 (rakta)sarṣapa = 1 taṇḍula; 106 2 taṇḍula = 1 dhānyamāṣa; 2 dhānyamāṣa = 1 yava; 107 4 yava = 1 aṇḍikā; 4 aṇḍikā = 1 māṣaka, 108 also called hema and dhānyaka; 3 miṣal:a = 1 śāṇa; 2 śāṇa = 1 draṅkṣaṇa, also called kola and badara; 2 draṅkṣaṇa = 1 karṣa, 119 also called suvaṇa, akṣa, bidālapadaka, picu, pāṇitala, tinduka, and kavalagral a; 2 karṣa = 1 palārdha (half a pala), which is also called śukti and aṣṭamikā; 2 palārdha = 1 pala, 110 also called muṣṭi, 111 prakuūca, caturthikā, bilva, ṣoḍaśikā, and āmra; 2 pala = 1 praṣrṭa, 112 also called muṣṭi, 114 prastha; 4 pala = 1 aṇjali, 113 also called kuḍava; 114 2 kuḍa a = 1 mānikā; 4 kuḍava = 1 prastha; 115 4 prastha = 1 āḍhaka, 116 also known as pātr ɪ; 8|prastha = 1 kaṃṣa; 4 kaṃṣa; 4 kaṇṣa = 1 droṇa, 117 also called armaṇa, nalvaṇa, kalaśa, gha; a, aṇd unmāṇa; 2 droṇa = 1 śūrpa or kumbha; 2 śūrpa = 1 goṇī, also called khārī 118 and bhāra; 119 32 śūrpa = 1 vāṇa; 100 pala = 1 tulā. 120

Rules are given for the dosages of fresh and dried medicinal substances, ¹²¹ the ratios of liquids in relation to the drugs in a compound recipe, etc. (12.98–101). ¹²² The pret aration of fat-containing compound drugs (oils, ghees) is described; this so-called snel apaka is of three types: mrdu (mild), madhya (medium), and khara (firm), according to the consistency of the final product; the indications of these three products of snel apaka are mentioned (12.102–104). ¹²³

The two systems of weights and measures which are employed in medicine are referred to in a verse considered to be spurious (anāṛṣa) by Cakrapāṇi; the Māgadha system is said to be superior to the Kālinga system (12.105). 124

Chapter 8 Siddhisthāna

Chapter one, called kalpanāsiddhi (the successful application of therapeutic measures), begins with twelve questions of Agniveśa on the successful application of the fivefold treatment called pañcakarman (1.3–5)). Ātreya expounds, in answer to these questions, the general rules to be observed in pañcakarman. ¹

Sneha should be applied for a minimum of three and a maximum of seven days (1.6cd-7ab);² the effects of sneha are mentioned (1.7cd). The effects of sveda are described (1.8ab).³ The correct application of emetics and purgatives is discussed; the preliminary diet; after-treatment; the signs of adequate, deficient and excessive dosages;⁴ the degree of action of an emetic drug is inferior, moderate or superior according to the number of times a patient will vomit: four, six or eight times; the number of times a patient will open his bowels and the amount of the stools determine these degrees in a purgative drug: ten, twenty or thirty times, and an amount of faeces passed of two, three or four prastha (1.8cd-21).

The correct application of anuvāsana (an evacuative, oleaginous enema) and nirūha (a medicated, non-oleaginous enema) is described; the preliminary diet and aftertreatment; the seasons and parts of day and night which are most suitable; the succession of the two types of enema; ⁵ the number of times a nirūha should be administered in kapha, pitta and vāta disorders: one or three, fi ve or seven, nine or eleven times respectively (1.25); the effects of the two types of enema (1.27–31); ⁶ their indications (1.32–34) ⁷ and contra-indications (1.36–37); the signs of adequate, deficient and excessive application of enemas; three courses of treatment with enemas (basti): karma-, kāla-, and yogabasti; karmabasti consists of one nirūha to begin with, followed by twelve nirūhas and twelve anuvāsanas, and five nirūhas at the end; ⁸ kālabasti is a course of one nirūha, six nirūhas and six anuvāsanas, alternately administered, and three nirūhas at the end; yogabasti consists of one nirūha, three nirūhas which alternate with three anuvāsanas, and one nirūha at the end (1.38–50ab).

The correct application of sirovirecana (evacuation of the head) is described; the signs of adequate, deficient and excessive treatment; its indications; rules for the period preceding this type of treatment and during treatment (1.50cd-55ab). Some complications due to faulty application of the described therapeutic measures are dealt with (1.55cd-60ab).

Chapter two, called pañcakarmīyasiddhi, is concerned with the types of persons suitable and unsuitable to treatment with pañcakarman (2.4-7), contra-indications and in-

dications for treatment with emetics ((2.8–10)⁹, purgatives (2.11–13),¹⁰ anuvāsana¹¹ and nirūha (2.14–19),¹² and śirovirecana (2.20–22),¹³

Chapter three, called bastisūtrīyasiddhi, begins with ten questions of Agniveśa concerning the application of enemas (basti) (3.3-5). 14

The subjects dealt with are: the material out of which the tube (nala) of the clyster should be made (3.7); ¹⁵ its measurements for various age groups; the places for the three rings (karnikā) on the tube (3.8–10ab); ¹⁶ the requirements for a suitable pouch (basti) (3.10cd–11); ¹⁷ substitutes for the pouch (3.12ab); ¹⁸ the proper way of administering an enema (3.12cd–26ab); ¹⁹ the first enema drags down vāta, the second one pitta, the third one kapha (3.26cd); after-treatment (3.27–30ab); dosages in various conditions (3.30cd–31ab) and age groups (3.31cd–33ab); ²⁰ the requirements for the couch the patient is lying on (3.33cd–34ab); diet (3.34cd–35ab); formulations for medicated enemas (3.35cd–71). ²¹

Chapter four, called snehavyāpatsiddhi, gives a number of formulations for snehabasti (= anuvāsana) (4.4–24). ²² The next part is devoted to six disorders (āpad, vyāpad) arising from faulty application²³ of a snehabasti; ²⁴ the enema may be covered (āvṛta) by vāta, pitta, kapha, an excess of ingested food (atyanna), or faeces, or it may have been applied on an empty stomach (abhukta); the symptoms and treatment of these disorders are described (4.25–40). A number of rules relating to the administration of a snehabasti and nirūha are formulated (4.41–51). ²⁵ A variety of snehabasti, called mātrābasti, is described (4.52–54). ²⁶

Chapter five, called netrabastivyāpatsiddhi, is concerned with types of tube (netra) and pouch (basti) to be avoided, and the treatment of disorders caused by an inappropriate tube or faulty handling of the tube (netravyāpad).²⁷

Eight defects of the tube and their untoward effects are enumerated (5.4-5), ²⁸ eight defects of the pouch and their effects (5.6-7), ²⁹ eight ways of faulty handling of the tube, their effects, and the treatment of the disorders resulting (5.8-18). ³⁰

Chapter six, called vamanavirecanavyāpatsiddhi, discusses the proper administration (samyakkṛtayoga) of emetics and purgatives, defective procedures, and the treatment of the disorders resulting from these defects (6.3).

Three chief seasons and three intermediate (sādhāraṇa) ones should be taken into consideration for the purpose of purificatory measures (i.e., emesis and purgation). The three chief seasons are grīṣma (summer), varṣāḥ (the rainy season) and himāgama (winter); the intermediate seasons are prāvṛṣ (the early rains), etc. ³¹ Prāvṛṣ consists of the months called Suci (= Āṣāḥha) and Nabha (= Śrāvaṇa), śarad of Ūrja (= Kārttika) and Saha (= Mārgaśīrṣa), vasanta of Tapasya (= Phālguna) and Madhu (= Caitra) (6.4–6).³²

Numerous rules are formulated concerning the proper management of pañcakarman and the various complications which may arise.

Subjects dealt with are: sneha facilitates the removal of the dosas from the body, in the same way as water can easily be removed from a vessel after greasing it; sveda

makes the fixed (sthira) dosas flow out (visyandayati) of the body after application of sneha, as fire acts upon damp wood; sodhana (purification) eliminates the impurities (mala = dosa), as dirt is removed from a cloth by water (6.11-13); a purificatory drug should not be taken during a disorder of digestion (ajīrna) (6.14); character stics of a proper dose (6.15-17); the preparatory diet (6.18-19ab); the signs of proper elimination (6.19cd-20); removal of the remains of too large a dose (6.21-22ab); 31 the treatment to be applied when the signs of proper digestion of the drug are not dose ved (6.23); after-treatment (6.24); the treatment to be applied when kapha and pitts are only slightly eliminated (6.25);³⁴ signs indicating proper and improper digestion of the drug (6.26-27); types of improper administration (6.28); ten disorders (wyā ad) due to improper purification are enumerated: 35 ādhmāna (tympanitis), par kai ti, 36 srāva,37 hrdgraha,38 gātragraha,39 jīvādāna (bleeding), vibhramsa,40 stambha (stiffness), upadrava (complications), and klama (exhaustion) (6.29-30); cases or wrong application of purificatory measures and their treatment (6.31-57);⁴¹ the symptoms and treatment of ādhmāna (6.58-60), 42 parikartikā (6.61-67), 43 parisrāva (6.68-70), 44 hrdgraha (6.71-75), 45 arigagraha (= gātragraha) (6.76-77), jīvādāna (6.78-84), 41 the three types of vibhramśa: gudabhramśa (prolapse of the rectum), samjñānāśa (loss of consciousness), and a syndrome characterized by kandū (itching) and other signs (6.85-87), stambha (6.88-89), 47 upadrava (6.90-91), 48 and klama (6.92-93). 19

Chapter seven, called bastivy \bar{a} patsiddhi, deals with the disorders caused by the improper administration of enemas.

Twelve of these disorders (vyāpad) are enumerated: deficient application (ayc ga), over-application (atiyoga), klama (exhaustion), ⁵⁰ ādhmāna (tympanitis), hik-cā (hic-cup), hṛtprāpti, ⁵¹ ūrdhvatā (moving in an upward direction), ⁵² pravāhikā, ⁵³ sir ɔ'rti (headache), aṅgārti (pains in the whole body), parikarta, ⁵⁴ and parisrava ⁵⁵ (7.5-6).

The causes, symptoms and treatment of these disorders are described: ayoga (7.7–11), atiyoga (7.12–14), klama, due to a remnant of āmadoṣa (7.15–20), ⁵⁶-ādł māna (7.21–26), ⁵⁷ hikkā (7.27–29), hṛdayaghaṭṭana (= hṛṭprāpti; 7.30–31), ŭrdhvatā (7.32–39), pravāhikā (7.40–42), ⁵⁸ śiro'rti (7.43–46), aṅgārti (7.47–53), paṅikatikā (7.54–57), parisrava (7.58–62). ⁵⁹ The composition of drastic (tīkṣṇa) and mild (mṛdu) enemas is dealt with (7.63).

The chapter ends with some general statements on the action of enemas (7.54-65).

Chapter eight, called prāṣrtayogīyasiddhi, begins with a number of formulations (y)ga) for enemas, expressed in the unit of weight called praṣrta. These enemas are especially suitable to delicate (sukumāra) patients and those suffering from the base effects of improperly applied evacuative measures (8.3–18).

One of the formulations is called pañcatiktanirūha (8.8-9ab). 62

The second part deals with diarrhoea (atisāra) as a disorder arising from the injudicious administration of enemas. Six main types are distinguished: according a field by āma, or pakva (i.e., devoid of āma) and accompanied by faeces, vāta, blood, bitta or kapha; thirty subtypes are distinguished according to the combinations of disas involved. This diarrhoea may lead to various complications (upadrava), such as sūla

(piercing pain), pravāhikā, ādhmāna (tympanitis), parikarti, aruci (loss of appetite), jvara (fever), tṛṣṇā (thirst), uṣṇa (heat), dāha (a burning sensation), mūrchā (fainting), etc. (8.19–22). The treatment of all the types of diarrhoea is discussed (8.23–45).

Chapter nine, called trimarm $\bar{\imath}$ yasiddhi, deals with disorders of the three (main) vital organs (trimarman). 63

The total number of vital spots (marman) in trunk (skandha) and extremities (śā-khā) is one hundred and seven. ⁶⁴ Excruciating (samadhika) pain is the result from any injury to them, because of their connection with the cetanā (the principle of consciousness). Those located in the trunk are more important than those located in the extremities, because the latter are dependent on the former. The most important ones are heart (hrd), urinary bladder (basti) and head (śiras) (9.3).

In the heart are established, like the spokes (ara) in the nave (nābhi) of a wheel, the ten dhamanīs, ⁶⁵ prāṇa and apāna, ⁶⁶ manas, buddhi, cetanā, and the mahābhūtas. ⁶⁷ In the head are located, as the rays of the sun, the senses and the channels carrying the (impressions of) the senses and the prāṇas. The bladder, situated in the midst of sthūlaguda (rectum), muṣkasevanī (the raphe of the perineum) and the tubes (nāḍī) transporting semen and urine, is the container (ādhāra) for the urine and the resort (pratiṣṭhā) of all the channels transporting the watery element, as the sea is the resort for all the rivers. The body is pervaded, like the sky by the rays of the sun, by numerous channels, known as marman, which are rooted in these (three vital organs). The latter should therefore be duly protected from external in jury and the doṣas (9.4–5).

The symptoms of injury to heart, head and bladder are enumerated (9.6). The three vital organs should be protected in particular from vāta, which causes agitation (samudīraṇa) of pitta and kapha and constitutes the root of the prāṇas; enemas are for that reason the best therapeutic measures for protection of the vital organs (9.7). Some recipes are given (9.8). The importance of protection of the vital organs as the seats of the prāṇas is stressed once more (9.9–10).

The next part of the chapter is devoted to disorders of the three vital organs which have not already been dealt with in the trimarmīya chapter of the Cikitsāsthāna 68 (9.11).

The first diseases to be described, along with their treatment, are apatantraka 69 and apatānaka (9.12-20), 70 followed by tandrā 71 (9.21-24). 72

Thirteen disorders affecting the urine (mūtradosa) ⁷³ are enumerated first (9.25–26) ⁷⁴ and then described, along with their treatment: mūtraukasāda ⁷⁵ (9.27–28), ⁷⁶ mūtrajathara ⁷⁷ (9.29–31), ⁷⁸ mūtrakṛcchra ⁷⁹ (9.32), mūtrotsanga ⁸⁰ (9.33–34ab), ⁸¹ mūtrasamkṣaya ⁸² (9.34cd), ⁸³ mūtrātīta ⁸⁴ (9.35), ⁸⁵ aṣṭhīlā ⁸⁶ (9.36), ⁸⁷ vātabasti (9.37), ⁸⁸ uṣṇavāta (9.38), ⁸⁹ vātakuṇḍalikā (9.39–40), ⁹⁰ mūtragranthi (9.41–42ab), ⁹¹ viḍ(vi)ghāta ⁹² (9.42cd–43), and bastikuṇḍala ⁹³ (9.44–46). Doṣic varieties are described, ⁹⁴ as well as curable and incurable conditions ⁹⁵ (9.47–49ab).

These disorders should be treated with measures removing mūtrakṛcchra; in all cases, basti and uttarabasti should be applied (9.49cd-50ab). 96

The instrument employed in uttarabasti (urethral douche) is described and the technique of its application (9.50cd-57), 97 followed by the preparation and application of

suppositories (varti), to be inserted into urethra (mūtranādī) or anus (pāyu) (9.58-61); 98 rules are given for the use of uttarabasti and suppositories in women 99, as well as for the application of uttarabasti as a vaginal douche (9.62-70ab).

The third group of diseases to be discussed are those affecting the head. Five diseases are described, together with their treatment: śańkhaka ¹⁰⁰ (9.71–73), ¹⁰¹ ardhāvabhedaka ¹⁰² (9.74–78), ¹⁰³ sūryāvarta ¹⁰⁴ (9.79–83), ¹⁰⁵ anantavāta ¹⁰⁶ (9.84–86ab), ¹⁰⁷ and śirahkampa (trembling of the head) ¹⁰⁸ (9.86cd–87).

Diseases of the head should be counteracted by means of nasal therapy (nastaḥ-karman), because the nose is the gateway to the head (9.88). 109

Five types of nastahkarman are distinguished: nāvana, ¹¹⁰ avapīda, ¹¹¹ dhmāpana, ¹¹² dhūma, ¹¹³ and pratimarśa. ¹¹⁴ Nāvana is of two varieties: snehana (oleaginous) and śodhana (purificatory); ¹¹⁵ avapīda is śodhana or stambhana; ¹¹⁶ dhmāpana consists of the blowing (ādhmāpana) of a powdered drug (cūrna) into the nose; dhūma is of three varieties, as described earlier; ¹¹⁷ pratimarśa performs both functions. ¹¹⁸ Nasal therapy is thus of three kinds: recana (evacuative), tarpaṇa ¹¹⁹ and śamana ¹²⁰ (9.89–92). ¹²¹

Śirovirecana is recommended in kapha disorders of the head, tarpana in vāta disorders, śamana in raktapitta and related disorders, dhmāpana and dhūma whenever required (9.93–95). 122

The proper procedures for these types of nasal therapy are described, together with their indications and contra-indications (9.96–117). 123

Chapter ten, called bastisiddhi, discusses indications and contra-indications for various types of enema (10.4–12); substances and drugs to be used (10.13–17); formulations for enemas to be employed in disorders caused by vāta, pitta, kapha (10.18–24); formulations for enemas which purify the pakvāšaya (10.25–27), promote the formation of semen and musculartissue (10.28–29), have a sāṇṇgrāhika action ¹²⁴ (10.30–31), are active against parisrāva ¹²⁵ (10.32), dāha (a burning sensation) (10.33), parikarta ¹²⁶ (10.34–35), pravāhaṇa ¹²⁷ (10.36), disorders resulting from over-application of enemas (10.37–38ab), jīvādāna (bleeding) (10.38cd–42), raktapitta and prameha (10.43), and various diseases (10.44–45). The total number offormulations described in this chapter is thirty-seven (10.46–48).

Chapter eleven, called phalamātrāsiddhi, ¹²⁸ contains a discussion among a group of sages about the most suitable fruit (phala) to be used in an āsthāpana. ¹²⁹

The sages mentioned as members of the assembly are Asita, Blugu, Gautama, Kāpya, Kauśika, Pulastya, Śaunaka and others. 130

Šaunaka argues that jīmūtaka ¹³¹ is the best one; Vāmaka prefers katutumba, ¹³² Gautama has a preference for dhāmārgava, ¹³³ Badiśa for kuṭaja, ¹³⁴ Kāpya for kṛtavedhana. ¹³⁵ Bhadraśaunaka restricts hīmself to rejecting Kāpya's opinion (11.3–9).

Ātreya replies to these claims that since there is no drug possessing merits or defects only, each one should be examined with regard to the relative preponderance of its merits; garāgarī ¹³⁶ is useful in kuṣṭha, ikṣvāku in (pra)meha, the seeds of kuṭaja in hṛdroga, koṭhaphala ¹³⁷ in pāṇḍu(roga), kṛṭavedhana in udara, and madana fruits ¹³⁸ in all diseases. The properties and actions of the fruits of madana are enumerated (11.10–

14).

Ātreya explains, on the request of the sages, how an enema, which displays its actions in the lower part of the trunk, is able to purify the whole body (11.15–18).

The next section of the chapter is devoted to the treatment of elephants, camels, cattle, horses, sheep and goats by means of enemas. The material for the pouch, the length of the tube and the dosages for a nirūha are specified (11.19–22), followed by the names of the drugs to be employed (11.23–26).

The last part of the chapter is concerned with persons who are always ill, the reasons for this, and the treatment of these groups of persons: priests (śrotriya, dvija), royal servants (rājasevaka, nṛpopasevin), courtezans (veśyā, paṇānganā) and merchants (paṇyajīvin) (11.27–36).

Chapter twelve, called uttarabastisiddhi, ¹³⁹ is about the after-treatment of patients to whom enemas have been administered (12.3–9).

Eight patterns of behaviour should be avoided during the period of convalescence: loud speech (uccairbhāṣya), being jolted in vehicles (rathakṣobha), making too long walks, a sedentary life, eating before the previous meal has been digested, eating unwholesome foods, sleeping by day, and sexual intercourse; the painful conditions and disorders arising from these types of behaviour in general are mentioned (12.10–12). The symptoms brought about by each of these eight patterns of behaviour are listed (12.13–14) and their treatment is discussed (12.15).

A series of twelve bastis (enemas) which are yāpana ¹⁴⁰ in their action are described (12.16); ¹⁴¹ one more enema is added, in which the contents of raw chicken's eggs (kukkuṭāṇ�arasa), used in the last formula of the series of twelve, are replaced by those of the eggs of the pea-hen, gonarda, ¹⁴² goose (haṃsa), or sārasa ¹⁴³ (12.17). ¹⁴⁴

A large number of other yāpana enemas containing animal products are described: ¹⁴⁵ a series of twenty enemas with viṣkira birds, ¹⁴⁶ thirty with pratuda birds, ¹⁴⁷ twenty-nine with prasaha mammals and birds, ¹⁴⁸ twenty-seven with aquatic (ambucara) birds, ¹⁴⁹ nine with fish and other aquatic animals, ten with crabs (karkataka) and other animals, ¹⁵⁰ seventeen with animals of the mrga group, ¹⁵¹ nineteen with viṣkira birds, ten with ānūpa animals, ¹⁵² and fourteen with bhūśaya animals ¹⁵³ (12.18).

A series of twenty-nine snehabastis, ¹⁵⁴also yāpana in action, is described; they are characterized as excellent aphrodisiacs (vṛṣya); the potency (vīṛya) of these substances will be increased by boiling them a hundred or thousand times, dependent on the funds available (12.19). The total number of formulations comes up to two hundred and sixteen ¹⁵⁵ (12.24–28).

The actions of yāpana enemas are mentioned (12.20–22), together with what ought to be avoided by patients to whom they are administered (12.23). Some complications that may result from excessive application of yāpana enemas are dealt with, together with their treatment (12.29–32ab).

Thus ends the Siddhisthana (12.33cd-34ab).

Agniveśa's treatise in one hundred and twenty chapters, delivered by Ātreya, has been completed now. Its study will lead to longevity, fame, health, etc. (12.34cd-36ab). Agniveśa's treatise, as redacted by Caraka, found to be incomplete by one-third,

was fully restored by Drdhabala (12.36cd-40ab).

The work is adorned with the following thirty-six tantrayuktis: ¹⁵⁶ adhikaraṇa, ¹⁵⁷ yoga, ¹⁵⁸ hetvartha, ¹⁵⁹ padārtha, ¹⁶⁰ pradeša, ¹⁶¹ uddeśa, ¹⁶² nirdeśa, ¹⁶³ vākyaśeṣa, ¹⁶⁴ prayojana, ¹⁶⁵ upadeśa, ¹⁶⁶ apadeśa, ¹⁶⁷ atideśa, ¹⁶⁸ arthāpatti, ¹⁶⁹ nirnaya, ¹⁷⁰ prasanga, ¹⁷¹ ekānta, ¹⁷² anekānta, ¹⁷³ apavarga, ¹⁷⁴ viparyaya, ¹⁷⁵ pūrvapakṣa, ¹⁷⁶ vidhāna, ¹⁷⁷ anumata, ¹⁷⁸ vyākhyāna, ¹⁷⁹ saṃsaya, ¹⁸⁰ atītāvekṣā, ¹⁸¹ anāgatāvekṣā, ¹⁸² svasaṇinīā, ¹⁸³ ūhya, ¹⁸⁴ samuccaya, ¹⁸⁵ nidarśana, ¹⁸⁶ nirvacana, ¹⁸⁷ saṃniyoga, ¹⁸⁸ vikalpana, ¹⁸⁹ pratyutsāra, ¹⁹⁰ uddhāra, ¹⁹¹ and saṃbhava ¹⁹² (12.40cd–45ab). ¹⁹³

The usefulness of these tantrayuktis is explained (12.45cd-49).

Careful study of the entire text is warmly recommended (12.51).

An interpolated verse refers to an Uttara(tantra) of the Carakasamhitā with a detailed exposition on the merits (guna) and blemishes (dosa) of a tantra (12.50).

Three more interpolated verses describe the *Carakasamhitā* as a treatise containing twelve thousand (verses and prose passages) (12.52–54).

Chapter 9 General features

The Carakasamhitā consists of 120 chapters (adhyāya), arranged in eight sections (sthāna).

The names of the sections are Sūtra-³ or Ślokasthāna⁴ (30 chapters), Nidānasthāna (8 chapters), Vimānasthāna⁵ (8 chapters), Śārīrasthāna⁶ (8 chapters), Indriyasthānaⁿ (12 chapters), Cikitsāsthānaⁿ (30 chapters), Kalpasthānaⁿ (12 chapters), and Siddhisthāna (12 chapters).

The same eight sections, in the same order, are found in the *Bhelasanhitā*; they also form part of the *Kāśyapasanhitā*, where the order of Kalpa- and Siddhisthāna is reversed.

The same number of 12 chapters is a characteristic of the Bhelasamhitā, Kā-śyapasamhitā (without the Khilasthāna), Suśrutasamhitā (without the Uttaratantra), and Astāngahrdayasamhitā.

The total number of chapters of the sanhitā, the names and the order of the sections, and the number of chapters in each section are recorded in a table of contents (Sū.30. 33–35).

The Sūtrasthāna is divided into seven groups of four chapters (catuşka) and two summarizing chapters (saṃgrahādhyāyas). ¹⁰ The names of the catuşkas are: bheṣaja-, ¹¹ bheṣajāśraya-, ¹² or auṣadhacatuṣka ¹³ (Sū.1--4); svastha-, ¹⁴ svasthavṛtta-, ¹⁵ or svāsthyavṛttikacatuṣka ¹⁶ (Sū.5-8); nirdeśa- ¹⁷ or nairdeśikacatuṣka ¹⁸ (Sū.9-12); kalpanā ¹⁹ or prakalpanācatuṣka ²⁰ (Sū.13-16); roga- ²¹ or rogādhyāyacatuṣka ²² (Sū. 17-20); yojanācatuṣka ²³ (Sū.21-24); annapāna-, ²⁴ annapānika-, ²⁵ or annaviniścayacatuṣka ²⁶ (Sū.25-28).

Similar divisions are not found in the other sections, but the first two chapters of the Cikitsāsthāna are subdivided into four pādas each. 27

The total extent of the *Carakasamhitā* is said to be 12,000 units (verses and passages in prose) in a verse at the end of the treatise, ²⁸ which is probably spurious. ²⁹ The actual number of verses is 9,035; the prose passages amount to a number of 1,111.³⁰

Chapters written in a mixture of verse and prose are frequent, particularly in the Sūtrasthāna. Chapters four, eight, twelve, fifteen, nineteen, twenty, twenty-five and twenty-nine of the Sūtrasthāna, the Nidānasthāna, the Vimānasthāna, and chapters three to eight of the Śārīrasthāna are mainly in prose; several chapters of the Sūtrasthāna, chapters four to twelve of the Indriyasthāna, chapters two to thirty of the Cikitsāsthāna, chapters two to twelve of the Kalpasthāna, chapters one, three to eight, nine and eleven of the Siddhisthāna are mainly in verse.

References to other sections and chapters are not rare at all in the Carakasam hitā. 31

The titles of the chapters are either based on their first words or related to their subject matter. ³²

Metres used in the verses are anuṣṭubh, āryā, gīti, indravaṃśā, indravajrā, kusumitalatāvellitā, puṣpitāgrā, rucirā (prabhāvatī), svāgatā, udgīti, upajāti, upendravajrā, vaṃśasthā, and viyoginī. ³³

Remarkably few studies are available on linguistic peculiarities of the Carakasam-hitā. ³⁴ An article by M.M. Deshpande deals with the bhinnakartṛka -tum infinitive, ³⁵ found only in parts of the Carakasamhitā not redacted by Dṛḍhabala. ³⁶ Two articles on the language of the Carakasamhitā were published by R.P. Das, who discusses Caraka's compounds, the anomalous removal of hiatus, unusual sandhi, constructions with yasya and yasyāh, the use of certain secondary suffixes, unusual genders of nouns, some peculiar words, etc. ³⁷

The style of the Carakasaṃhitā is much more developed than that of the Bhelasaṃhitā, the contents of which resemble it in many respects. P.V. Sharma³⁸ pointed to the remarkable differences when the vātakalākalīya chapters of both treatises³⁹ are compared. He also called attention to a number of skillful and beautiful verses.⁴⁰

The Carakasamhitā is primarily a treatise on kāyacikitsā, ⁴¹ which for that reason occupies the first place in the list of the eight divisions (anga) of āyurveda (Sū.30. 28). ⁴² Passages indicating that other subjects, such as śalya, śalākya, etc., do not belong to its domain are found at several places, ⁴³ particularly in the Cikitsāsthāna. Specialists in surgery are referred to as dhānvantarīyāḥ, ⁴⁴ śalyavidaḥ, ⁴⁵ śalyahartāraḥ, ⁴⁶ vraṇacintakas, ⁴⁷ and kṣāratantravidaḥ. ⁴⁸ Specialists in śālākya were also known. ⁴⁹

Consequently, by far the larger part of the Carakasamhitā is devoted to internal medicine (kāyacikitsā). Surgical subjects, not altogether absent, are discussed in chapter twenty-five, subjects belonging to śālākya in chapter twenty-six of the Cikitsāsthāna. Kaumārabhrtya is dealt with in Śārīrasthāna 2–4, 6 and 8, bhūtavidyā in Nidānasthāna 9–10 and Cikitsāsthāna 9–10, agadatantra in chapter twenty-three of the Cikitsāsthāna, rasāyana in chapter one of the Cikitsāsthāna, vājīkaraņa in chapter two of the Cikitsāsthāna.

This arrangement of the contents reflects a general feature of the early medical works and many later treatises, ⁵¹ namely, that the eight branches of āyurveda are referred to as a classificatory scheme, without actually being made the basis of a corresponding disposition of the material. ⁵²

Contributions of Agnivesa

Elements belonging to the oldest layer of the Carakasaṃhitā, i.e., the Agniveśatantra, are, according to P.V. Sharma: ⁵³ the names of chapters based on their first words; ⁵⁴ the expression 'iti ha smāha bhagavān ātreyaḥ' at the beginning of a chapter; the use of saumya with reference to Agniveśa as a pupil; ⁵⁵ the use of the term skandha; ⁵⁶ passages calling to mind the style of some Upaniṣads; ⁵⁷ the mixture of prose and verse; ⁵⁸ the discussions among groups of sages; ⁵⁹ the summary in verse at the end of a chapter; the use of the word upaniṣad; ⁶⁰ the references to Kāmpilya and Pāncāla; the importance of the term catuṣpāda; ⁶¹ the term sodaśakala; ⁶² the version of Sāṇkhya acknowledg-

ing twenty-four tattvas; ⁶³ the doctrine of bhūtānupraveśa; ⁶⁴ the traces of an early type of Yoga, different from the system represented by the *Yogasūtras*; the doctrine of the three doṣas; the foremost place of vāyu among the three doṣas; ⁶⁵ the description of five kinds of vāyu; ⁶⁶ the descriptions of the buddhīndriyas, karmendriyas and manas; the description of the heart; ⁶⁷ the ten prāṇāyatanas; ⁶⁸ some elements relating to bhūtavidyā; ⁶⁹ the comparison of ojas and madhu (honey); ⁷⁰ the importance of rasa; ⁷¹ the concept of the three eṣaṇās; ⁷² the concepts of sat and asat; ⁷³ the concept of paraloka, defended against heretical views; ⁷⁴ the transmission of a science from the gods to human sages; ⁷⁵ one hundred years as the maximum span of human life; ⁷⁶ the concept of a tṛtīyā jātilh. ⁷⁷

Contributions of Caraka 78

The determination of Caraka's contributions to the *Agniveśatantra* depends on one's views concerning the dates of Agniveśa and Caraka, the type of relationship between their works, etc. In spite of the almost unsurmountable problems, some scholars made serious attempts at identifying features and elements that may be due to Caraka.

P.V. Sharma⁷⁹ expressed the opinion that Agniveśa's treatise, written in sūtra style, was enlarged with Caraka's annotations (bhāṣya). ⁸⁰ In his view, ⁸¹ the Agniveśatantra may have resembled the Bhelasaṇhitā. He is inclined to attribute to Caraka passages in prose and verse that are composed in a mature style. ⁸²

P.V. Sharma⁸³ and Sūramcandra⁸⁴ claim that Caraka made Agniveśa's tantra into a saṃhitā consisting of sūtra, bhāṣya and saṃgraha. The activities of such a reviser (saṃskartar) are outlined by Drdhabala (Si.12.36cd-37ab).

Some regard the verses, introduced by bhavati cātra, ⁸⁵ bhavataś cātra, ⁸⁶ or bhavanti cātra, ⁸⁷ as deriving from Caraka, while others consider them forming part of the original *Agniveśatantra*. ⁸⁸ This type of stanza is often found towards the end of a chapter, preceding verses, introduced by tatra ślokalı, ślokau or ślokāh, which give a summary of the contents. ⁸⁹ The latter type is usually regarded a forming part of Caraka's text. ⁹⁰

Cakrapāṇidatta, undoubtedly preceded by earlier commentators, distinguished a type of statement, called pratisaṇiskartṛsūtra, thought to derive from the pen of a reviser (pratisaṇiskartar), who, though not mentioned by name, is probably Caraka. 91

Apart from the pratisannskartrsūtra, Cakra distinguished three other types, called guru-, 92, śiṣya-93 and ekīyasūtra 94 respectively. 95

More specific contributions of Caraka are, according to P.V. Sharma: the elaboration of the discussions among groups of sages; ⁹⁶ yukti as a pramāṇa; yuktivyapā-śraya methods of treatment; the importance of parīkṣā and jīāna; ⁹⁷ the description of the descent of āyurveda (Sū.1); ⁹⁸ various types of sveda (Sū.14); ⁹⁹ the importance of saṇiṣśamana and saṇiṣśodhana (Sū.22 and 23); ¹⁰⁰ the description of new diseases; ¹⁰¹ the description of the eight branches of āyurveda (Sū.30); ¹⁰² the introduction of articles of food growing in the northwestern regions of India. ¹⁰³

The concepts related to those of Sāmkhya, Nyāya and Vaisesika are generally assumed to belong to Caraka's contributions. 104

False attributions to Caraka

Caraka became a revered authority to whom in later times much was attributed that is completely absent from the treatise going under his name.

Caraka's name is associated with nādīsāstra in Raghunātha Paṇḍita's Nādījñānavidhi 105 and Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya. 106

A number of texts regard Caraka as an authority on rasaśāstra. Raghunātha Paṇḍita's Cikitsāmañ jarī contains a series of rasayogas said to belong to the domain of Caraka. 107 Iatrochemical formulae attributed to Caraka in other treatises are: a śivagutikā, 108 somanātharasa, 109 and varuṇādyalauha. 110

Recipes ascribed to Caraka which contain ingredients added to the materia medica in post-classical times are also found. An example is kunkumādicūrna. 111

Todara's \bar{A} yurvedasaukhya attributes part of the description of the kalās, found in the Suśrutasamhitā, to Caraka. 112

The text of the Carakasaınhitâ

P. Cordier is one of the early scholars who noticed that the text of the *Carakasamhitā* must have been subject to considerable variations, as is obvious from quotations found in commentaries. 113

The text of the *Carakasaṃhitā* presents a number of problems which deserve serious attention. A critical edition, highly desirable, does not exist so far. ¹¹⁴ References and quotations in commentaries testify that once several recensions were known which differed in their readings. Commentators also express their views on the genuineness or spuriousness of particular verses or groups of verses. ¹¹⁵ Later works quoting Caraka contain verses which deviate from the edited text ¹¹⁶ or are not found there at all. ¹¹⁷ Some verses belonging to the text of the *Carakasamhitā* as accepted by Cakrapāṇidatta are attributed to other authorities by later authors. ¹¹⁸ The text of many editions incorporates numerous verses, placed between brackets, which are probably interpolations. ¹¹⁹

Other passages regarded as interpolations are, for example, $S\bar{u}.17.41$ - 44, 25.48–49, Vi.3.39-40, Vi.7.8–30, 120

P.V. Sharma proposed a number of emendations of Yādavaśarman's text of the Carakasamhitā. 121 His corrections relate to: Sū.1.57 (sāttvika instead of mānasa); 1.115a (vamane 'śmantakakṣīram instead of vamane 'śmantakam vidyāt); 1.122a (the edited version is not correct); 3.15 (sakuṣṭhā instead of sakuṣṭhāt); 122 4.14 (yaṣṭika should be ṣaṣṭika; cf. 4.16); 123 5.12 (śāliṣaṣṭikamudgāṃś ca instead of ṣaṣṭikār chālimudgāṃś ca); 10.4 (upakrānta is preferable to anuṣṭhita); 13.72ab (these pādas ought to be deleted, because they are also found at Ci.15.202ab); 124 14.72 (snehasamiddhasya is preferable to snehasamṛddhasya); 18.36 (upakrānta instead of anukrānta); 21.12 (rūkṣam udvartanam instead of rūkṣasyodvartanam; snānānabhyā-saḥ instead of snānasyābhyāsaḥ); 21.32 (rūkṣam udvartanam instead of snīgdham udvartanam); 125 21.50 (āsīnarn pracalāyitam instead of āsīnapracalāyitam); 126 22.8 (kṛṭākṛṭātikṛṭānām is preferable to kṛṭākṛṭātivṛṭṭānām); 22.41 (tadauṣadhānāṃ rogāṇām instead of tadauṣadhānāṃ dhātūnām); 127 25.38 (sthāvarasnehānām instead of

sthāvarajātānām snehānām): 25.39 (ālukam kandāṇām should precede nikucam phalānām); 25.40 (lāmajjakošīre is preferable to lāmajja cošīram and nirvīttih pustikarānām to nivrttili pustikarānām; the second nihsamsayakarānām should be replaced by nirbhayakarānām); 26.3 (Hiranyāksa Kuśika should be substituted for Hiranyāksa Kauśika); 26.43(4) (mohayati instead of mohayanti); 26.84 (sarsapatailabhrstān instead of sarsapatailabhrastān); 27.4 (vetrāgri:mrtā- instead of vegāgrāmrtā-); 27.25 (sa svāduh is preferable to tat svāduh); 121 27.55 (jangalacāriņah instead of jāngalacārinah); 27.92 (kālākhyam instead of kidāyam); 129 27.101 (-nālikāsuryah instead of -nālikāsūryah); 27.122 (sārsapam śāham is odd among the group of kandaśākas): ¹³⁰ 27.128 (vātapitte praśasvate is better than vātapitte ca śasvate): 27.163 (madhurāny anupākīni instead of madhurāny amlapākīni); 27.216 (varuņālaye instead of varunālayam); 28.4 (prasādākhyāli mālākhyāś ca instead of malākhyāh prasādākhyāś ca); Ni.3.10 (sabubhuksasya instead of abubhuksasya); 131 Ni.4.14 (iksyālīrasasamkāśa should be read instead of *andeksurasasamkāśa); 132 Vi.3.45 (tīvrādharmarucer instead of tīvrādharmārucer); 4.5 (jñānasamudavena instead of iñānasamudāyena); 5.8 (arocakāvipākau instead of arocakavipākau); 5.26 (annavahānām instead of annavāhānām); 133 7.17 trirātram instead of trivāram); 134 8.11 (mādhūkībhir instead of mādhukībhir); 8.169 (śikharidaśanāh is preferable to śikharadaśanāh); 135 Śā.1.143 (vratacaryopavāsaś ca instead of vratacaryopavāsau ca); 136 Śā.5.4 (saddhātavah samuditāh loka iti śaksdam labhante instead of purusa iti sabdam labhante): 8.3 (strīpumsayor ayyāpanna:jukrasonitagarbhāsayoh should be replaced by strīpumsayor ayyāpannaśonitagarbhāśayaśukrayoh); 137 8.24 (viśamāsana should replace viśamāśana); 8.47 (ksemaka instead of ksaumaka; kanakanikendhana instead of kanakakantakendhana; 138 I.2.19 (kastid evasya vairasyam instead of kaścid eväsyavairasyam); 5.17 (piban instead of pibet); I.5.34 (pādayarmanoh instead of pādacarmanoh); 11.21 (āhvayantah is pseferable to āhvayams tam); 12.19 (varma vicyutam is preferable to carma vicyutam); Ci.11.36b (āmalakesv api is better than āmalakīsv api); ¹³⁹ 1².15 (astabhāgena linstead of aksabhāgena); ¹⁴⁰ 2².8ab (sāndrībhūtam tam kuryāt prabhūtamadhuśarkarāk instead of sāndrībhūtam ca kuryāt pıabhütamadhuśarkaram); 141 3.54cd (saptāham vā daśāham vā dvādaśāham suduhsahah is preferable to daśāham dvādaśāham vā suptāham vā sudulisahah); 142 5.77c (śūlānāhaharāh instead of śūlānāhaharī); 6.26 (s trāhvam instead of surāhvām); 143 6.40 (savalkām instead of sakalkām); 7.111 (sailā instead of śailā); 7.120 (rajas instead of payas); 7.123 (pakvasurā is to be replaced by śastrasurā); 144 7.140 (ardhapalāmśam is more correct than ardhadalāmśam); 8.58 (ślesrhāśayastham is preferable to āmāśayastham); 145 9.22 (-pānih instead of vānilı); 146 13.48 (anudakaprāptam udaram is better than anudakam aprāptam udaram); 13.88-85ab (the correct order is 88ab, 89ab, 88cd); 13.119cd-124ab (iti patolādicūrnam should be inserted after the formula); 14.43 (istakasya should be replied by dīpyakasya); 14.228-229 (iti picchābastih should come after 228); 14.243 (śītosnāni ca vajayan instead of vojayet); 14.252 (saśārkarāh instead of saśarkarāh); 14.253ab (dvaividhyam instead of dvividham); 14.253cd (peyāś ca instead of pesyāś ca); 15.35 (sthalam nimnam ivodakam is preferable to sthalan nimnad ivodakam); 15.89 (kɔlamla instead of kolambu); 15.97 (cānalam instead of cālanam); 15.205 (sa ghrtam instead of saghrtam); 15, colophon (grahanīdosacikitsitam is more correct than grahanīcikitsitam); 17.69 (śuskam vrksam ivānalah instead of śuskam kaksam); 17.145-146 (iti manahśilādighrtam should be read after 17.145); 18.60 (lehyād is preferable to lihyād); 147 18.87 (nīlī vāranapippalī instead of nīlīsārāni pippalī); 18.101 (the second jīvaka should be replaced by vrddhika); 18.159 (śrte instead of śrtair); 148 19.34 (amlasnehādhyah instead of amlasnehādyah); 149 19.113 (līdhvā instead of pītvā); 150 21.86 (kalkitair instead of tvakkalkair); 22.11 (22.11 and 12 should be read together because both deal with vatikatṛṣṇā); 22.19 (tṛṣyati is preferable to tṛṣyate); 22.42 (pakvāmalosta je jale instead of pakvalostam eva ca jale); 151 22.49 (lehyam instead of leham); 22.51 (prapibet instead of trsitah); 23.9 (kṛkalāsakāḥ instead of sakṛkanṭakāḥ); 23.15 (jāngamarn instead of jangamam); 23.42 (visādhmānam is preferable to visādhānam); 23.84 (vicarcikām instead of visūcikām); 23.91 (vijaye instead of vijayo); 152 23.135 (gādhasampāditam ūrdhvam instead of gūdhasampāditam vṛttam); 153 23.143 (prāṇaharārditah is preferable to dūṣīviṣārditah); 23.151 (dasto 'sādhyena instead of dasto 'sādhyas tu); 154 23.188 (khadirāristakautajam mūlam ambhasā instead of khadirāristam kautajam mūlam ambhasā); 23.231 (ikṣurako instead of iksuraso); 23.234 (naraś instead of garaś); 23.245 (śvetabhandyaśvakhurakau instead of śvetabhandāśvakhurakau); 24.71 (made cottamake 'dhikām instead of madhye cottamamadhyayolı); 155 24.77 (rājasamāpānam instead of rājasamāpannam); 24.159 (hemapuspakutannatam is preferable to hemapattram kutannatam); 24.162 (vyajanānām is more correct than vyañjanānām); 25.41 (śodhanaropanīyau instead of śodhanau ropanīyau); 25.55 (lekhanam instead of lepanam); 25.109 ((kāthinyam instead of śaithilyam); 156 26.17 (sa mūtravaryo 'nilasangam asyan instead of sa mūtravarco 'nilasangam āśu); 157 26. 74 (katakādikānām instead of kanakādikānām); 26.96 (kaulatthayūsaiś is preferable to kaulatthadhānyais); 15 8 26.127 (asravanam instead of aśravanam; pūtisravanam instead of pūtiśravanam); 26.128 (snighasrutih instead of snigdhaśrutih); 26.132-133 (iti khālityaroganidānam should come after 26.132); 26.144 (the second pibet should be replaced by tatah); ¹⁵⁹ 26.181 (śańkhayo instead of śesayo); 26.187ab (iti śirorogacikitsā should come after 26.180); 26.261 (saśvetamaricāh instead of syur alpamaricāh); 26.264 (sāhacarād bhārngarājāc ca instead of sahacarād bhrngarājāc ca); 27.29 (śālmalam instead of śālmalīm); 160 28.10 (antrāni instead of antrasthah); 161 28.41 (bhugnā jihvā instead of dīnā jihmā); 28.49cd-50ab (correct reading: vivrtāsyatvam athavā kuryāt samvrtavaktratām/ hanugraham ca samsthabhya hanum stabdham avedanam); 28.53cd-54 (the correct order is: 54cd, 53cd, 54ab); 28.94 (praharso 'nnam ca instead of harso 'nnapānam); 162 29.101 (sirāvedhāgnikarma ca instead of sirā bastyagnikarma ca); 163 28.202 (jñānasınrtibalaksayam instead of jñātvā sınrtibalaksayam); 29.110 (padmakotpalayastyāhvaphenilāpadmavetasaih instead of padmavetasayastyāhvaphenilāpadmakotpalailī); 29.113 (the correct name of the recipe is mahāpadmakam tailam); 29.140 (ksīrapistām umām lepam instead of ksīrapistam umālepam): 29.151 (dhānyāmlapesitam instead of dhānyāmlasamyutam): 164 30.116 (pāndure pradare instead of pāndure 'srgdare); 165 30.236 (kuryur astavidham dosam lingatas tān nibodha me instead of kuryur astavidham bhūyo dosatas tan nibodha me); 30.250cd-251ab (proposed reading: anye ca vividhā rogā dosaih kṣīrasamāśritaih/ ksīre vātādibhir duste sambhavanti tadātmakāh); 30.261cd (kvātham ca nāgarāt instead of kvātham caiva sanāgaram); 30.293 (samyagyoge instead of samyagyogo); ¹⁶⁶ 30.305 (vyākhyātam etat kālasya savikalpam avekṣaṇam instead of vyākhyātam abalānām savikalpānām avekṣaṇe); ¹⁶⁷ 30.310 (vardhante instead of varṣānte); Ka.12.37 (caika instead of caiva); ¹⁶⁸ 12.88 (bhavet tābhyām instead of bhaved eko); 12.93 (praṣṭtau dvau instead of kudavau dvau; caturguṇapalaṃ instead of palaṃ caturguṇam); Si.1.41 (kṛtaḥ instead of sa yaḥ); 3.32 (paraṃ syāt instead of paraṃ syuḥ); 3.53 (drākṣarddhi- instead of drākṣādi-); ¹⁶⁹ 7.46 (śīrṣavirecanam instead of asya virecayet); 8.31 (pitte 'sre kaphe instead of pitte vā kaphe); 9.16 (dhamanīḥ kaphavātābhyām ruddhās instead of śvasanaṃ kaphavātābhyām ruddham); 10.48 (mehe ca tv ekas triṃśac ca instead of mehe ca ekatriṃśac ca); ¹⁷⁰ 11.9 (kṛtavedhanam asty avātalaṃ is preferable to kṛtavedhanam āha vātalaṃ); 11.22 (govājino instead of gavādiṣu); 12.11 (aticaṅkramaṇāsane instead of avicaṅkramaṇāsane); 12.13(6) (gātrāvasādā instead of gātrāvasāda-); 12.16(1) rajovisarga- instead of rajovisarpa-) 12.18(15) (jānujaṅghā instead of jānūru); ¹⁷¹ 12.31 (kṣāra instead of kṣīra); 12.41 (ṣaṭtriṃśatā instead of ṣaḍviṃśatā).

Schools of interpretation

A number of schools which adhered to particular interpretations of the *Carakasaṃhitā* or to their own text of the treatise are mentioned by commentators. ¹⁷² The schools referred to are the Dākṣiṇātyas, ¹⁷³ Gauḍas, ¹⁷⁴ Hāriścandras, ¹⁷⁵ Kāśmīras, ¹⁷⁶ Maitreyas, ¹⁷⁷ Paitāmahas, ¹⁷⁸ Saindhavas, ¹⁷⁹ Śivasaindhavas, ¹⁸⁰ Udīcyas, ¹⁸¹ and Vaiṣṇaras ¹⁸²

The Carakottaratantra

A Carakottaratantra¹⁸³ is quoted in Candrața's Yogaratnasamuccaya, Niścala's Ratnaprabhā, ¹⁸⁴ Śivadāsasena's Tattvabodha on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā, ¹⁸⁵ and by the unknown commentator on an interpolated portion of the Cakradatta ¹⁸⁶

Verses from the Carakottaratantra form part of Vmda's Siddhayoga and Cakrapānidatta's Cikitsāsamgraha. ¹⁸⁷

Some of these stanzas are related to verses found in the Suśrutasaṃhitā, 188 and to verses from unknown sources in Siddhayoga and Cakradatta, 189

All the quotations from this Carakottaratantra, with one exception, ¹⁹⁰ are concerned with the treatment of diseases belonging to śalya and śālākya, which conveys the impression that it was a supplement to the Carakasamhitā of the same type as the Uttaratantra of the Suśrutasamhitā ¹⁹¹ in covering divisions of āyurveda which are not the main subject of the treatise. ¹⁹²

The Uttaratantra is mentioned in a verse that is found towards the end of the Carakasanhitā (Si.12.50). This verse, ¹⁹³ considered as spurious by Cakrapāṇidatta on the authority of the ancient physicians (vṛddhāḥ), says that the tantrayuktis will be described in extenso in the Uttaratantra in order to provide right knowledge on the merits (guṇa) and defects (doṣa) of the treatise (tantra). Cakra states that the

Uttaratantra of the *Agniveśatantra* ought to be regarded as unauthoritative. In spite of this, he refers to it (in his comments ad Si.12.41cd-44), remarking that the fifteen kinds of vyākhyā, seven kinds of kalpanā, twenty-one kinds of arthāśraya, seventeen kinds of tācchīlya, ¹⁹⁴ and fourteen kinds of tantradoṣa are not dealt with here, because they will be discussed in the Uttaratantra, a section obviously known to him.

This information on the contents of the Uttaratantra of the Agnivesatantra does not tally with the available quotations from the Carakottaratantra. 195

Caraka's region

The region where the *Carakasamhitā* may have been written is often supposed to be the northwestern part of India. ¹⁹⁶ The evidence that can be drawn upon for the determination of this region is meagre and depends entirely on the identification of passages due to the author called *Caraka* and his identity.

An Indian tradition claims that the *Carakasamhitā* is the work of those pupils of Vaiśampāyana who went to the northern parts of India. ¹⁹⁷ Those convinced that the Kāśmīrapātha is due to Caraka assume Kaśmīr to have been the region where he lived. ¹⁹⁸ Hoemle also regarded him as a native of Kaśmīr. ¹⁹⁹ Others, accepting the identity of the author of the samhitā with the court-physician of Kaniska, are sure on that ground that he belonged to the North-west. Others again base themselves on the descriptions of the Himālayas, etc., which are thought to indicate that he roamed through northern or northwestern India, not far from the mountains. ²⁰⁰ One author is confident that Caraka lived in Benares. ²⁰¹

P.V. Sharma adduces in support of the thesis that Caraka was a resident of northwestern India the mention of articles of food that were much used there and exported to other regions. ²⁰² Examples are: abhisuka, ²⁰³ akṣoṭa, ²⁰⁴ caṇaka, ²⁰⁵ gṛṇjanaka, ²⁰⁶ kharjūra, ²⁰⁷ laśuna, ²⁰⁸ nɪḍdvīkā, ²⁰⁹ mukūlaka, ²¹⁰ nikocaka, ²¹¹ palāṇḍu, ²¹² rājamāṣa, ²¹³ urumāṇa, ²¹⁴ vātāma, ²¹⁵ and yavānī ²¹⁶. Some more items of the same type are āruka, ²¹⁷ bhavya, ²¹⁸ cīnaka, ²¹⁹ and ṭaṅka. ²²⁰ Condiments popular in the same region are hingu ²²¹ and kuṅkuma. ²²²

Plant names and names of vegetable substances

Plant names and names of vegetable substances found in the *Carakasamhitā*, but absent from the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, are: abhaya²²³ (Sū.3.29; Ci.4.81; 12.69; Si.3.47); abhīrupattrī²²⁴ (Vi.8.139); ādānī²²⁵ (Śā.8.47); adhoguḍā²²⁶ (Sū.1.77); adhyaṇḍā²²⁷ (Ci.3.267); ādityavallī²²⁸ (Ci.26.268); agnimukhī²²⁹ (Sū.4.9); ajaḍā²³⁰ (Ci.2².18; 2⁴.15 and 31); ākhuparṇī²³¹ (Ci.26.70; Si.3.61; 8.9); ākhuparṇikā²³² (Sū.4.11; Ci.30. 107; Si.4.18; 10.32); akṣīva²³³ (Sū.4.11; Ci.3.267); ambhalṣyāmāka²³⁴ (Sū.27.17); amburuha²³⁵ (Ci.22.37); amlapākin²³⁶ (Sū.27.163); amlikākanda²³⁷ (Sū.27.121); amoghā²³⁸ (Sū.4.18; Śā.8.20); amṇāla²³⁹ (Sū.3.26);²⁴⁰ amṛtaphala²⁴¹ (Ci.7.147); annapākin²⁴⁵ (Si.12.19); antalıkoṭarapuṣpī²⁴⁶ (Sū.1.82); ariṣṭā²⁴⁷ (Sū.4.18; Śā.8.20); asanaparnī²⁴⁸ (Vi.8.139; Ci.26.70); āsurī²⁴⁹ (Sū.27.101); áśvahana²⁵⁰ (Sū.3.17; Ci.29.

142; Si. 9.51) 31 aśyakhuraka ²⁵¹ (Ci. 23.245); aśyāyarohikā ²⁵² (Si. 10.37); atirasā ²⁵³ (Sū. 4.10 and 18; Ci.10.35); ātmajā²⁵⁴ (Ci.3.267); avaghāta²⁵⁵ (Ci.7.129); avaghātaka²⁵⁶ (Ka.8.3); avā (cpuspī²⁵⁷ (Vi.8.151; Ci.7.114; 14.234; 29.62); avarohā²⁵⁸ (Ci.3.267); avyathā²⁵⁹ (Sū.4.18; Śā.8.20 and 58); bahulā²⁶⁰ (Ci.8.103); bahuphenarasā²⁶¹ (Ka. 11.3); balāha (a²⁶² (Ci.23.11); balbaja²⁶³ (Sā.8.41; Ci.1⁴.7; 5.138); bhadraparnī²⁶⁴ (Vi.8.135); bladraudanī ²⁶⁵ (Sū.4.9); bhandī ²⁶⁶ (Sū.27.107); bhāradvājī ²⁶⁷ (Sū.4.9; Vi.8.139); bilvaparnī²⁶⁸ (Sū.27.107); bodhivrksa²⁶⁹ (Ci.29.158); brhatpattra²⁷⁰ (Ka.9.3); buka²⁷¹ (Ci.30.82); cakramudgaka²⁷² (Sū.21.25); cañcu²⁷³ (Ci.19.32); cāratī²⁷⁴ (Ci.9.45); carmakasā²⁷⁵ (Ci.23.66); carmasāhvā²⁷⁶ (Ka.11.3); chattra²⁷⁷ (Sū.27.123); cīna²⁷⁸ (Sū.27.14); cīnaka²⁷⁹ (Ni.4.5; 5.6); cirbhata²⁸⁰ (Sū.27.112; Ci. 19.32); cukril ā²⁸¹ (Ci.8.131; 14.199 and 202; 15.89; 24.151); cukrīkā²⁸² (Ci.15.114; 24.151); cuñcuparnikā²⁸³ (Sū.27.100); dandairakā²⁸⁴ (Ci.26.51; Ka.1.25); dardura²⁸⁵ (Sū.27.14); dārunisā²⁸⁶ (Ci.6.40); devatādaka²⁸⁷ (Ka.2.3); dhanañjaya²⁸⁸ (Ci.4.75); dhanvayāsa(ka)²⁸⁹ (Sū.4.11 and 14; Ci.3.204 and 207; 4.46; 7.145; 18.178; 21.58; 26.170); dhai:vayavāsa²⁹⁰ (Ci.14.186); dhāvanī²⁹¹ (Ci.3.187 and 224); dugdhikā²⁹² (Ci.8.131: 14.198: 21.83: 26.266); dvāradā ²⁹³ (Vi.8.139: Ci1⁴.15); dvīpī²⁹⁴ (Vi.8. 135); dvīpikā ¹⁹⁵ (Ka.1.22); dvīpiśatru ²⁹⁶ (Vi.8.135); edagaja ²⁹⁷ (Sū.3.3, 13, 15; 27.33; Ci.7.93, 103, d13, 126, 127, 160, 161); ekāsthīla²⁹⁸ (Si.10.23); elāparņī²⁹⁹ (Vi.8.135); erak \bar{a}^{300} (S $\bar{u}_1^{13}.24$ and 27; Ci.29.134); gandhana³⁰¹ (S $\bar{u}_1.27.14$); gandhaphal \bar{a}^{302} (Ci.23.57); gandhapriyangu 303 ((Sū.25.40; Śā.8.24; Ci.21.90); garāgarī 304 (Ka.2.3; Si.11.12); garmūtī³⁰⁵ (Sū.27.18); gaura³⁰⁶ (Sū.27.8 and 13); girimallikā³⁰⁷ (Ka.5.4); gopī³⁰⁸ (Vi.8;135); guḍā³⁰⁹ (Ka.10.8); hāridraka³¹⁰ (Sū.26.84); hastiparņī³¹¹ (Sū.1. 82); hastiparr.inī (Sū.1.84); hastisyāmāka 312 (Sū.27.17); hayagandhā 313 (Ci.28.173); hemadugdhā¹⁴ (Ka.12.23); heman³¹⁵ (Sū.3.29; Ci.11.40; 12.36; 21.74; 24.159; 25.116 and 1½7); hiṅguparnī³¹⁶ (Ci.9.57); hiṅgupattrikā³¹⁷ (Ci.9.66); hiṅguśivātikā³¹⁸ (Ci.10.37; 15.109); hintāla³¹⁹ (Ka.1.8); iksuvālā³²⁰ (Ci.26.73); iksuvālikā³²¹ (Sū. 4.12; 25.49; Ni.4.10; Vi.8.135; Śā.8.29; Ci.2¹.24; Ka.1.25); iksvālikā (Ci.1 1.18); indrā³²² (Ka./19); indrāhva³²³ (Ci.14.160); indrāni³²⁴ (Ci.21.85 and 90); indrasāhvā³²⁵ (Ci.6.42); indrāyudha³²⁶ (Ci.23.12); jālamālinī³²⁷ (Ci.23.206); jalapippalī³²⁸ $(S\bar{u}.27.171)$; $iap\bar{a}^{329}$ (Ci.1³.57); $iav\bar{a}^{330}$ (Ci.9.45); $ihint\bar{i}^{331}$ (S $\bar{u}.27.18$); $iongaka^{332}$ $(Ci.1^4.15)$; $j\bar{c}^2$ rnāhva³³³ (Sū.21.25; 27.18); kākāhvā³³⁴ (Ci.21.90); kākānda³³⁵ (Sū. 27.34); kalanıba³³⁶ (Sū.27.101); kālankataka³³⁷ (Ka.1.25); kālankrta³³⁸ (Vi.8.135); kanaka³³⁹ (Ci.7.74; 23.78); kanakapuspī³⁴⁰ (Ci.7.167); kāndīra³⁴¹ (Ci.3.267; Ka. 1.25); kapikachu³⁴² (Ci.9.80; 11.62; 28.125 and 160); kapolavallī³⁴³ (Vi.8.139); kapotavallī³⁴'l (Vi.8.139); karkaśa³⁴⁵ (Sū.27.97; Vi.8.143); karkatāhvayā³⁴⁶ (Ka.7. 18); karkataki³⁴⁷ (Ci.18.51 and 153); karkotaki³⁴⁸ (Ka.4.3); karnikāra³⁴⁹ (Ka.8.3); kāsthagodhā²i³⁰ (Ci.1⁴.7); katambharā³⁵¹ (Ci.9.47); katuphalā (Ci.23.66;³⁵² Ka.4. 3); 353 kauntī 354 (Ci.9.35; 12.65; 23.55; Si 8.13); kāyasthā 355 (Ci.9.46 and 57; 10.46 and 48; 17.141; 26.83); kelūta³⁵⁶ (Sū.27.114); khandikā³⁵⁷ ((Sū.27.28); kharāhvā³⁵⁸ (Sū.23.15; 2~.172; Ci.14.43); kharāśvā³⁵⁹ (Ci.26.60; Si.9.8); kilima³⁶⁰ (Vi.8.142; Śā.8.34 and 4.1; Ka.7.15); kokanada³⁶¹ (Vi.6.17); kolavallī³⁶² (Ci.3.210); kośātaka³⁶³ (Ka.6.9; Si.3.56); kothaphala³⁶⁴ (Si.11.12); kothaphalā³⁶⁵ (Ka.4.3); krauñca³⁶⁶ (Ci.23.11); klrauñcādana 367 (Sū.27.116; Ci.3.258; 14.9); krmihara 368 (Ci.7.153); kṛṣṇacitraka (Ci.26.272); kṛṣṇapiṇdīta³⁶⁹ (Ci.26.272); kṛṣṇaśaireyaka³⁷⁰ (Ci.26.268);

kṛṣṇaśaṇa³⁷¹ (Ci.26.269); kṣaudrapaṛṇ̄³⁷² (Ci.7.123); kṣemaka³⁷³ (Ci.3.267); kṣ̄rapuspī³⁷⁴ (Ci.1⁴.6); ksīravallī³⁷⁵ (Vi.8.139); ksīrikā³⁷⁶ (Ci.2³.8); ksveda³⁷⁷ (Ka.6.3, 10, 12); kucelā³⁷⁸ (Sū.27.95); kulaka³⁷⁹ (Sū.27.97; Ci.3.189; 17.97; 23.225; 26.156; 27.27 and 34; 30.74 and 259); kulinga³⁸⁰ (Sū.4.12); kulingā³⁸¹ (Vi.8.139); kulingā $ks\bar{i}^{382}$ (Vi.8.139); kulīraśrng \bar{i}^{383} (Sū.4.14); kumārajīva³⁸⁴ ((Sū.27.100); kuñcikā³⁸⁵ (Sū.27.307; Ci.14.72; 15.108; 30.54 and 57); kuśapuspaka³⁸⁶ (Ci.23.12); kuskunda³⁸⁷ (Śā.6.11); kusthaghna³⁸⁸ (Ci.23.54); kutaraṇā³⁸⁹ (Ka.7.4); kuvala³⁹⁰ (Sū.4.10 and 13; 25.49; Ni.2.4; Vi.8.136 and 140); lāngula³⁹¹ (Sū.27.8); lohavāla³⁹² (Sū.27.9); lohitacandana³⁹³ (Ci.4.102); lauhitya³⁹⁴ (Sū.27.17); lottāka³⁹⁵ (Sū.27.100); mācīka³⁹⁶ (Vi.8.144); madhūkapuspī³⁹⁷ (Vi.8.139); madhuvallī³⁹⁸ (Vi.8.139); mahājālinī³⁹⁹ (Ka.3.17; 4.3); mahāpattra⁴⁰⁰ (Ci.14.124); mahāpurusadantā⁴⁰¹ ((Ci.9.46); mahāvrīhi⁴⁰² (Ni.4.5); maṇdūkapippalī⁴⁰³ (Śā.8.41); mārisa⁴⁰⁴ (Sū.27.100); markata⁴⁰⁵ (Ci.23.13); marubaka⁴⁰⁶ (Ka.1.23); masūravidalā⁴⁰⁷ (Vi.8.136; Ci.7.137; 21.60; Ka.11.14); meghaka⁴⁰⁸ (Ci.23.12); mrdangaphala⁴⁰⁹ (Ka.6.3); mrgalindikā ⁴¹⁰ (Sū.25. 49); mrnālī⁴¹¹ (Ci.8.129); mrstaka⁴¹² (Sū.27.170); muktā⁴¹³ (Sū.4.18); mukūlaka⁴¹⁴ (Sū.27.157; Ci.25.53; Ka.7.46; 12.3); mūlakaparņī (Vi.7.21; 415 Ci.3.267416); nadīmāsaka⁴¹⁷ (Sū.27.114); nāgaranga⁴¹⁸ (Sū.27.156); nalikā⁴¹⁹ (Ci.28.152); nandā⁴²⁰ (Ka.10.8); nandītaka⁴²¹ (Vi.8.140); nārī⁴²² (Ci.1⁴.7); nikuca⁴²³ (Sū.25.39; 26.84; 27.132); nīlā (Ci.14.7); 424 nistrirnšapattraka425 (Ka.10.8); nyagrodhī426 (Ka.12.3); odanapākin⁴²⁷ (Ci.3.258; 29.96); padmacāratī⁴²⁸ (Ci.23.55); padmottarikā⁴²⁹ (Sū. 26.84); pākala⁴³⁰ (Ci.7.161; 23.196); pakvasurā⁴³¹ (Ci.7.123); palāśā⁴³² (Si.3.38); pāmsuvāpya⁴³³ (Sū.27.12); parivyādha⁴³⁴ (Śā.8.29); parņāsa⁴³⁵ (Ni.2.4; Vi.7.17 and 21; 8.142 and 151; Ci.3.267); parnāsaka⁴³⁶ (Ka.1.25); parpatakī⁴³⁷ (Sū.27.162); parvanī⁴³⁸ (Sū.27.108); parvapuspī⁴³⁹ (Sū.27.108); patarīga⁴⁴⁰ (Sū.27.9); phalapūra(ka)⁴⁴¹ (Ci.4.95; 20.36 and 39; 26.84); pīluparnī⁴⁴² (Ci.3.267; 27.41; 30.50); pīluparnikā⁴⁴³ (Sū,27.102); pindī⁴⁴⁴ (Ci.14.10); pītadru⁴⁴⁵ (Ci.10.43; 12.25; 17.110; Si.4.29); poṭā⁴⁴⁶ (Ka.1.25); poṭagala⁴⁴⁷ (Vi.8.135; Si.10.33); praśātikā⁴⁴⁸ (Sū.21.25; 27.17; Ci.4.36); pratyakśrenī⁴⁴⁹ (Sū.1.77; additional verse between Ka.12.3 and 4); pundraka⁴⁵⁰ (Sū.25.49); pūtanā⁴⁵¹ (Ci.9.45); pūtanakeśī⁴⁵² (Ci.10.34 and 39); rājakaśeru(ka)⁴⁵³ (Vi.8.139 and 144; Si.10.37); rājakośātakī⁴⁵⁴ (Ka.4.3); rājamāsa⁴⁵⁵ $(S\bar{u}.27.25)$; raktamūlī⁴⁵⁶ (Ci.10.31); ran**d**ā⁴⁵⁷ (additional verse between Ka.12.3 and 4); rādha⁴⁵⁸ (Ci.26.14); rohā⁴⁵⁹ (Ci.3.267); rohisa⁴⁶⁰ (Ci.23.12); rudhira⁴⁶¹ (Sū.4.18); ruhā⁴⁶² (Ci.3.267; 23.80); ruhāpattra⁴⁶³ (Ci.14.124); śādvala⁴⁶⁴ (Ci.10.48; 16.121; 21. 75; 29.131); śaikharika⁴⁶⁵ (Vi.7.19); śakra⁴⁶⁶ (Ka.5.4); śakulādanī⁴⁶⁷ (Sū.4.9; 27.96); śālakalyāṇī 468 (Sū.27.102); śāleya 469 (Sū.27.170; Ci.4.75); śālmalika 470 (Vi.8.135; Si. 10.36); sambarī⁴⁷¹ (additional verse between Ka.12.3 and 4); samharsā⁴⁷² (Vi.8.139); samkoca⁴⁷³ (Ci.2³.28); samvartaka⁴⁷⁴ (Ci.3.258); śanapuspī⁴⁷⁵ (Sū.1.78 and 79; 4.13; Vi.8.135; Ka.1.14); śārada⁴⁷⁶ (Sū.27.14; Ci.14.95); sārivākhya⁴⁷⁷ (Sū.27.9); sarpā⁴⁷⁸ (Ci.14.7); sarpacchattraka⁴⁷⁹ (Sū.27.123); sarvānubhūti⁴⁸⁰ (Ka.7.4); śatāhvaka⁴⁸¹ (Sū,27.145); śatakusumā⁴⁸² (Si.12.16 and 18); śataparvan⁴⁸³ (Ci.3.258); śatapattra⁴⁸⁴ (Sū.4.15; 25.49; Ci,3.258; Si.10.21); saumanasyāyanī⁴⁸⁵ (Vi.8.135; Ka.4.16); sauvarnī (tvac)⁴⁸⁶ (Ci.7.77); śibira⁴⁸⁷ (Sū.27.18); śilodbheda⁴⁸⁸ (Ci.15.113; 30.90); sitagiri⁴⁸⁹ (Ci.23.95); śītaka⁴⁹⁰ (Vi.8.140); śītakumbhikā⁴⁹¹ (Ci.3.258); śitivāraka⁴⁹² (Ci.26.56 and 60; Si.9.8); śivā⁴⁹³ (Sū.4.18; Śā.8.20); śrīnivāsaka⁴⁹⁴ (Ci.28.153);

śrngaverikā⁴⁹⁵ (Sū.27.171); śryāhva⁴⁹⁶ (Sū.3.3; Ci.30.107); śubhā⁴⁹⁷ (Ci.8.145); śukabarha⁴⁹⁸ (Sū.5.23); śūkarī⁴⁹⁹ (Ci.9.46); śuklasurasa⁵⁰⁰ (Ci.23.101); śukti⁵⁰¹ (Sū.25.49; Ni.2.4; Ci.25.67); sūrpapamī⁵⁰² (Ci.1¹.43; 2².5; 19.50; 28.151); sūryakāntā⁵⁰³ (Ci.1⁴.7); śusā⁵⁰⁴ (Sū.27.88); śuskaśāka⁵⁰⁵ (Ci.19.33); sutaśrenī⁵⁰⁶ (additional verse between Ka.12.3 and 4); svarnayūthikā⁵⁰⁷ (Si.10.31); śvasana⁵⁰⁸ (Ka.1.27); śvetabhanda⁵⁰⁹ (Ci.23.245); śvetabhandī⁵¹⁰ (Ci.23.210); śvetakaravīra⁵¹¹ (Ci.7.105 and 106); svetamarica 512 (Ci.26.245 and 246); svetanāman 513 (Sū.1.77); svetavacā 514 (Ci.23.70; Si.3.62); śvetavallī⁵¹⁵ (Ci.3.267); tādaka⁵¹⁶ (Sū.25.49); taila⁵¹⁷ (Ci.23.12); tapanīya⁵¹⁸ (Sū.27.9); tarūta⁵¹⁹ ((Sū.27.116; Ci.14.9); thauneyaka⁵²⁰ (Ci.12.65); tiktalā⁵²¹ (Ka.11.3); tikteksvāku⁵²² (Ci.23,206); tintikera⁵²³ (Ci.14.10); tirītaka⁵²⁴ (Ka.9.3); tridaśāhva⁵²⁵ (Ci.28.162); trnamūla⁵²⁶ (Ci.4.103); tūda⁵²⁷ (Sū.27.135); tūrnaka⁵²⁸ (Sū.27.8); udumbaraparnī⁵²⁹ (Ka.12.3); ujjvala⁵³⁰ (Sū.27.14); ulūpa⁵³¹ (Vi.3.7); umā⁵³² (Sū.14.36; 27.34; Ci.12.70; 17.84; 25.53; 29.140); upacitrā⁵³³ (additional verse between Ka.12.3 and 4); vanatiktaka⁵³⁴ (Sū.27.95); vanatrapusī⁵³⁵ (Vi.8.139); vānīra⁵³⁶ (Ci.3.258; 4.102; Ka.1.8; Si.10.21); vanya⁵³⁷ (Sū.3.8; 5.22 and 64; Ci.3,258; 21.74; 23.77); vāpya⁵³⁸ (Ci.7.130); vārija⁵³⁹ (Ci.4.107); vārtākī⁵⁴⁰ (Vi. 8.151; Ci.15.183); vātapotha⁵⁴¹ (Ci.3.258); vātvapuspī⁵⁴² (Sū.4.18; Śā.8.20 and 58); vātyāyanī⁵⁴³ (Sū.4.9); vāyasapīluka⁵⁴⁴ (Ci.23,217); venī⁵⁴⁵ (Ka.2.3); vetasāmla⁵⁴⁶ (Ci.12.55); vikas \bar{a}^{547} (Ci.8.175); v \bar{a}^{548} (Vi.8.139; Ci.2¹.25 and 34; 5.119; 8.79 and 101; 9.43 and 45; 11.35 and 62; 14.123 and 236; 15.127 and 156; 21.78, 79, 90; 25.47; 26.93; 28.161; 29.65, 114, 131; 30.50; Ka.4.13; Si.3.49); vīrana⁵⁴⁹ (Sū.4.12; Śā.8.29 and 57); visvaksenakāntā 550 (Sū.4.18; Śā.8.20); vitunnaka 551 (Ci.18.176; 29.94); vrddharuhā⁵⁵² (Sū.4.12); vrkadhūmaka⁵⁵³ (Sū.27.101); vrksaruhā⁵⁵⁴ (Sū.4.12); vrsakarnikā⁵⁵⁵ (Ci.21.84); vṛṣaparnikā⁵⁵⁶ (Sū.4.11); vyāghīrī⁵⁵⁷ (Sū.5.65; Ci.3.211 and 236; 5.106; 8.111); yamānī⁵⁵⁸ (Ci.6.41; 8.126); yātuka⁵⁵⁹ (Sū.27.102); yavaśāka⁵⁶⁰ (Sū.27.102).

Inorganic substances

Inorganic substances ⁵⁶¹ are grouped together as pārthiva or bhauma in character. ⁵⁶² A list of these substances (Sū.1.70–71a) comprises gold (suvaṛṇa), ⁵⁶³ the five metals (loha) ⁵⁶⁴ along with their impurities (mala), ⁵⁶⁵ sikatā, ⁵⁶⁶ sudhā, ⁵⁶⁷ manaḥśilā, ⁵⁶⁸ āla, ⁵⁶⁹ (senū-)precious stones (maṇi), ⁵⁷⁰ salt (lavaṇa), ⁵⁷¹ gairika, ⁵⁷² and añjana. ⁵⁷³

Other inorganic substances are: agāradhūma (Ci.23.51; Si.7.25; 9.58); ⁵⁷⁴ adrijatu (Ci.13.78); ⁵⁷⁵ amṛtāsanjña (Ci.7.114); ⁵⁷⁶ amṛtāsanga (Sū.3.10; Ci.14.55; 25.117); ⁵⁷⁷ aśmajatu (Ci.12.49; 16.81); ⁵⁷⁸ dhūma (Si.7.24); ⁵⁸⁹ gandha (Ci.17.125); ⁵⁸⁰ gandhaka (Ci.7.71); ⁵⁸¹ girija (Ci.1³.64; 21.130; 30.148); ⁵⁸² gṛhadhūma (Sū.3.5; Ci.7.87; 23.41, 197, 198, 213; 26.194; 29.149); ⁵⁸³ kāca (Śā.8.41; Ci.17.125); ⁵⁸⁴ kāṅkṣī (Ci.23.54; 30.121); ⁵⁸⁵ kardama (Ci.21.81); ⁵⁸⁶ kāsīsa (Sū.3.5 and 10; Ci.7.102, 109, 114, 117, 167; 21.126; 25.115 and 117; 26.254 and 271; 30.79 and 121); ⁵⁸⁷ kṛṣṇamṛt (Ci.23.61); ⁵⁸⁸ lomasa (Sū.3.4 and 15); ⁵⁹⁰ loṣṭa (Sū.18.6; 25.40; 1.12.20; Ci.3.112; 4.80; 20.30; 22.42; 23.25; Si.7.14); ⁵⁹¹ mākṣika (Ci.7.70; 16.73, 82, 83; 21.130); ⁵⁹² mrd (Sū.4.18; 9.13; 18.6; Śā.1.43; 3.20; Ci.4.79 and 104;

16.28 and 121; 20.42; 26.224);⁵⁹³ mṛttikā (Sū.14.46; Ci.1².11; 1⁴.21. 2⁴.26; 4.66; 16.27 and 117; 19.65; 27.49, 51, 54; Ka.1.9);⁵⁹⁴ pāṛṇśu (Vi.3.7; I.12.28; Ci.1⁴.59; 23.39 and 174); pāṣāṇa (Sū.14.26 and 58; 27.209 and 210; Ci.21.131);⁵⁹⁵ rasa (Ci.7.71);⁵⁹⁶ rasottama (Ci.25.116);⁵⁹⁷ romaśa (Ci.29.152);⁵⁹⁸ saugandhikæ (Sū.3.10);⁵⁹⁹ saurāṣṭrī (Ci.7.114; 15.138);⁶⁰⁰ saurāṣṭrikā (Ci.30.79 and 98);⁶⁰¹ śilāḥvlya (Ci.1³.65; 26.99);⁶⁰² śilājatu⁶⁰³ (Sū.21.24; 24.56; Ci.1³.48, 56, 58, 62; 5.97; 7.7.2; 13.152 and 153; 16.88; 23.213; 28.242; 29.159);⁶⁰⁴ sphaṭika (Ci.1⁴.22; 17.125)1⁶⁰⁵ suvarcikā (Sū.2.23);⁶⁰⁶ suvarṇamākṣika (Ci.7.71);⁶⁰⁷ svarjikā (Vi.7.17; Ci.23.2.15);⁶⁰⁸ tāpya (Ci.16.78; 26.250);⁶⁰⁹ tuttha (Sū.3.12; Ci.7.108, 114 and 120; 26.250);⁶¹⁰ vaigandhika (Ci.23.223);⁶¹¹ veśmadhūma (Ci.26.14).⁶¹²

This survey may be useful in facilitating an assessment of the employment of inorganic substances in the Carakasamhitā⁶¹³ and comparisons with other texts, ⁶¹⁴

The inorganic substances mentioned are prescribed in various forms, both externally and internally. 615 Some of these substances were heated before use. 616 Many of them were administered in the form of a powder (cūrṇa, rajas), 617 either singly or in combination with other drugs.

The intricate processes known from alchemical and later āyurvedic treatises are absent from the *Carasamhitā*, ⁶¹⁸ though some are convinced that distillation is mentioned. ⁶¹⁹ The term bhasman is employed in a sense that di fers from its alchemical use. ⁶²⁰

Mercury is not yet known as a medicinal substance. The term rasa⁶²¹ (Ci.7.71) refers back to the juice extracted (nigrhīta) from the plant called jāti (Ci.7.70).⁶²²

A substance called rasottama, sometimes thought to be mercury, ⁶²; is prescribed once, for external use in a lepa (Ci.25.116). ⁶²⁴

The meaning of this term is a problematic issue. The presence of the verse that contains the prescription in a number of treatises gives the opportunity to compare the interpretations of various commentators. Cakra says that rasottama is either pārada (mercury) or ghee. Indu regards it as mercury (pārada). Among the commentators on the Hṛdaya, Aruṇadatta is silent, while the Kairalīagrees with Indu; Śivadāṣāsena, though identifying rasottama as pārada, adds that some are of the opinion that ghee is meant. The Hṛdayaprakāśa of the Aṣṭāṇgaḥṛdayakoṣarecords that ghee is meants though many (predecessors) identify rasottama as pārada. The Śivadīpikā considers it to be rasāṇjana. The Kusumāvalī on the Siddhayoga remarks that rasottama is eir.her pārada or ghee according to Cakra(pāṇidatta), or the juice (rasa) of sahakāra (i.♣, the mango) according to Jinadāsa. Śivadāsasena comments (ad Cakradatta, vraṇaś) tha 101) that rasottama is pārada, while others regard it as ghee. Niścalakara mentions that Cakra sees ghee in it, while Jinadāsa interprets it as the sweet juice of sahakāraş he himself is convinced that ghee is meant, because this is the substance corresponding to rasottama in an equivalent recipe of Jātūkarṇa quoted by him.

This survey of the various interpretations makes clear that it is far from certain, even improbable, that mercury is mentioned in the Carakasanhitā.

Chapter 10 Caraka, his identity and date

Some early European Indologists collected information on Caraka from MSS of his samhitā ¹ and references to him and his work. ² H.H. Wilson, one of the first European Indologists interested in Indian medicine, expressed the view that Caraka and Suśruta could not be later than the ninth or tenth century on account of references to them in the Purāṇas, ³ while the style of their works pointed to a much earlier date. ⁴ H.H. Wilson was also acquainted with the fact that Caraka had been translated into Arabic in the eighth or early ninth century; ⁵ the earliest one to discover this was, however, F.R. Dietz. ⁶ F. Kielhorn ⁷ placed Caraka before the middle of the the seventh century because he is quoted three times by Bhartrhari, who died in A.D. 651/652. ⁸

The discovery, made simultaneously by S. Lévi⁹ and J. Takakusu, ¹⁰ that a Caraka is mentioned as a physician attached to the court of Kaniska kicked up much dust. The references to this Caraka are found in two Chinese Buddhist texts. The first of these sources, the *Tsa-pao-ts'ang-king*, ¹¹ translated from the Sanskrit ¹² about A.D. 472 by Ki-kia-ye and T'an-yao, consists of a collection of stories, one of them telling that Kaniska was on friendly terms with the physician Caraka whose advice protected him from all illness. The second source, the *Fou-fa-ts'ang-yin-yuen-king* ¹³ or *Fou fa tsang yin yuan tchouan* ¹⁴ or Record of the twenty-three patriarchs, ¹⁵ said to be a translation by Ki-kia-ye and T'an-yao again, is actually aforgery made in China towards the middle or the end of the sixth century, ¹⁶ based on earlier works. Caraka ¹⁷ is depicted in this work as a physician who, after presenting himself to Kaniska, saves the queen on two occasions, by means of his obstetrical skills, from dying during childbirth; ¹⁸ disappointed, on account of the king's inattentiveness to his counsels, he leaves the court and, finally, retires from worldly life. ¹⁹

Although the details of these stories, in particular those found in the Record of the twenty-three patriarchs, are untrustworthy, these sources, especially the *Tsa-paots'ang-king*, which is based on a Sanskrit original, indicate that a physician known as Caraka or a caraka, may have been known about the times of the reign of Kanişka, towards the end of the first or the beginning of the second century A.D. ²⁰

The identity of this Caraka is a hotly debated issue. ²¹ Some regard him as the author of the *Carakasamhitā*, ²² while others are doubtful²³ or reject this identification. ²⁴

Some of the arguments adduced against the identification are: the Caraka mentioned is not credited with a medical treatise; the absence of the name of any king in the Carakasanıhitā; the improbability that a freely wandering physician like Caraka might have accepted the bondage of a royal court; ²⁵ the paucity or supposed absence of Buddhist influence on the Carakasanhitā, while Kanişka was a convert to Buddhism; ²⁶

Aśvaghoşa, attached to Kaniṣka's court according to Chinese tradition, mentions Ātreya in his *Buddhacarita*, without referring to Caraka;²⁷ the poets and scholars at Kaniṣka's court were Buddhists; Nāgārjuna²⁸ does not mention Caraka in the *Upāyaḥrdaya*,²⁹ though, according to some scholars, he refers to Suśruta;³⁰ Caraka's name is absent from the verses describing Kaniṣka in Kalhaṇa's *Rājataraṅginī*.³¹

These and various other arguments against the hypothesis that Caraka belongs to the period of Kaniska have been put forward in particular by the numerous Indian scholars who claim a much earlier date for him. 32

G. Hāldār advanced as his view that the Caraka of Kaniṣka's court was actually Kapilabala, ³³ the father of Dṛḍhabala; he called this physician, to whom he attributed a Kapilabalatantra, the Navīnacaraka, and supposed him to have enriched the already existing Carakasaṛḥhitā with the comments of Patañjali (the Pātañjalavārttika), to which he owed the title of Caraka. ³⁴

This assumption may have led P.V. Sharma³⁵ to suggest that the Caraka mentioned in connection with Kanişka may have been a Śaka physician, ³⁶ and that his name points to the originally nomadic life of this people. In line with G. Hāldār, he supposes this Caraka to have revised an already existing medical treatise that, afterwards, became known as *Carakasamhitā*. ³⁷

New elements, probably incorporated by this physician, are, in P.V. Sharma's view: the references to turbans, shoes and umbrellas; ³⁸ the importance of smoking; ³⁹ the references to warm clothing; ⁴⁰ the maternity home, described as a wooden structure; ⁴¹ the importance given to the daily agnihotra ritual; ⁴² the references to regions belonging to the Kuṣāṇa and Śaka territory, such as Bāhlīka, ⁴³ Saurāṣṭra, Sauvīra, and Sindhu. ⁴⁴

One of the problems with the name Caraka and its association with the Carakasamhitā is its late appearance in medical literature, a feature noticed and rightly stressed by P.V. Sharma. ⁴⁵ Drehabala is the first author to refer to Caraka as the one who revised (saṃs-kṛ-) an earlier treatise, which, though not named, is usually assumed to be the work known as Agniveśatantra. ⁴⁶ Cakrapāṇidatta mentions both Caraka and Drṛḍhabala as saṃskārakas. ⁴⁷ It is in the colophons of the Carakasaṃhitā only that Caraka appears as the pratisaṃskartar of the Agniveśatantra.

The medical authority Caraka and the work going under his name became widely known only in the Gupta period. The earliest authors acquainted with him and his treatise are Vāgbhaṭa and Bhaṭṭārakahariścandra. These facts, and the loss of a considerable part of the Carakasaṃhitā, made P.V. Sharma insist, as already mentioned, that Caraka may have been a Śaka physician, which would explain that his treatise failed to gain wide acceptance and got partly lost, until Dṛḍhabala supplied the missing parts. Dṛḍhabala was of Śaka origin too, in P.V. Sharma's eyes, 48 but in his times the Śakas had become an integral part of Indian society. 49

Jyotir Mitra, who claims a very early date for the *Carakasaṃhitā*, suggests that it may have been retouched by a physician, bearing the title of Caraka, who was a contemporary of Kaniska. ⁵⁰ Atrideva⁵¹ appears to hold a similar opinion.

Solid evidence for linking the Caraka of the Chinese sources with the author of the Carakasamhitā is entirely lacking. This has already been emphasized by J. Filliozat, 52 D. Chattopadhyaya, 53 and others. Several persons, among them physicians, who

roamed about the country, may have been called thus, 54 as individuals or as members of groups known as carakāh.

The Lalitavistara, ⁵⁵ Saddharmapuṇḍarīka ⁵⁶ and some other Buddhist texts ⁵⁷ are acquainted with wandering heretical ascetics called carakas. The Jain canonical work Sūyagada (Sūtrakṛtāṅga) refers to the theoretical position of one of the ancient caraka schools. ⁵⁸

Varāhamihira's $Brhajj\bar{a}taka$ mentions the carakas in a list of seven sects. ⁵⁹ Vaidyanātha Dīkṣita refers to them as a group of religious mendicants in his $J\bar{a}takap\bar{a}rij\bar{a}ta$.

Rṣabhadatta, the son-in-law of the Śaka ruler Nahapāna, bestowed a donation on a community of carakas. 61

The claim of the Gulabkunverba team that Caraka's name occurs in Bāṇa's Harsacarita is unfounded. 62

P.V. Sharma is convinced that these references to carakas agree with the type of practitioner described in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, a yāyāvara without fixed abode, devoting his life to the search for knowledge and to solving the health problems of the people. ⁶³ The Gulabkunverba team regards a caraka as the secular equivalent of the religious-minded parivrājaka. ⁶⁴

These interpretations appear to be too specific for the vagueness of the references. Moreover, the term caraka is employed to designate not only a member of various, usually religious, groups, but it has diverse other meanings too. ⁶⁵It may denote a follower of a particular Vedic school, a wandering religious student, ⁶⁶ a performer of a type of acrobatics, ⁶⁷ a person of low social status, ⁶⁸ a glutton, ⁶⁹ a spy, ⁷⁰ etc.

Various other references to caraka(s) are known. The term is found in two sūtras of Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī: 4.3.107 mentions Kaṭha and Caraka; 5.1.11 employs the words māṇava and caraka. The names in the first sūtra are those of two schools of the Black Yajurveda. The second sūtra has been interpreted in different ways. Some regard Māṇava and Caraka as the names of two Vedic schools, 72 others see in them names for students. P.V. Sharma 4 offered his own explanation: the term māṇava denotes someone who indulges in magic and witchcraft, 75 an art called māṇavavidyā in the Arthaśāstra, 76 while the term caraka probably means a medical expert devoted to the Atharvave a.

The Kāśikāvṛtti says that the carakas are the pupils of Vaiśampāyana, who is also known as Caraka; nine prominent ones among these carakas are enumerated. The Bhāgavatapurāṇa relates that Vaiśampāyana had two pupils, named Adhvaryu and Caraka, who were known by the common name of Caraka. The Viṣṇupurāṇa na Brahmāṇḍapurāṇa and Brahmāṇa and Brahmāna and

These references have given rise to various, mostly speculative and improbable, interpretations. One Indian author asserts that Vaiśampāyana himself is the Caraka who revised the Agniveśatantra and made it into the Carakasaṃhitā. ⁸¹ Another Indian author claims that the Carakasaṃhitā is the work of Vaiśampāyana's pupils. ⁸² Others again maintain that the author of the Carakasaṃhitā must have been a member of one of the Vedic schools established by those disciples of Vaiśampāyana who went to the northern parts of India. ⁸³

The more sober view that the Kāśikāvṛtti and a number of Purāṇas refer to the Vedic school called Carakaśākhā, without postulating any connection with the Carakasaṇhitä, is also represented.⁸⁴ The Carakas of this śākhā are, for example, mentioned in Viśvarūpa's commentary on the Yājiāvalkyasmrti.⁸⁵

It is not clear which Caraka is meant in a passage of Jayantabhaṭṭa's Nyāyama-ñjarī, ⁸⁶ where Caraka and others are described as able to reach a decision, by means of perception (pratyakṣa), on the power (śakti) of substances (padārtha), either combined or single (samastavyasta), relative to the variability of country, time, the individual (puruṣa), and the stage of the life cycle (daśā). ⁸⁷

The Caraka mentioned by Śānta rakṣita is undoubtedly the Caraka of the saṃhitā. 88 Some passages of Vedic texts which mention a Caraka or use related words are subject to disagreeing interpretations. The Carakācārya of the Taittirīyabrāhmaṇa is, according to Sāyaṇa's commentary, someone who teaches the art of walking on bamboo stilts (vaṃṣāgranartana), 88a i.e., a kind of dancer (naṭaviśeṣa); this explanation, pointing to a person of a low social status, is accepted by the Gulabkunverba team and Hemarājaśarmaṇ, 89 while others prefer to see in this Carakācārya a teacher of the Carakašākhā. 90 The Vājasaneyšsaṃhitā is, like the Taittirīyabrāhmaṇa, acquainted with a Carakācārya who is enumerzted among the victims at the human sacrifice called puruṣamedha; this person is regarded as a teacher of the Carakašākhā, denunciated as the representative of a rival school, 31 as a person of low status, 92 a roaming mendicant (bhiksu), 93 or the medical authority Caraka. 94

The form of the Sautrāmaṇī ritṭal called Carakā, usually thought to be connected with the Carakaśākhā, was supposed by A. Hillebrandt to allude to the medical teacher Caraka. 95

Other references also show thas Caraka is a well known name in Vedic literature.

The Carakas formed one of the schools (śākhā) of the Black Yajurveda⁹⁶ and are subdivided into twelve ramifications in the Caranavyūha⁹⁷, one of the Parisiṣṭas of the Atharvaveda. One of the recensions of the Black Yajurveda, the Kāṭhakasaṇhitā, may be connected with the Carakas ⁹⁸ and be based on an older and lost Carakasaṃhitā, ⁹⁹ because the Kaṭha school called itself Carakakaṭha¹⁰⁰ or Cārāyaṇīyakaṭha in order to distinguish it from the school of the Kapiṣṭhalakaṭhas. The precise extent of the term Caraka is, however, uncertain and it may have been applied to the whole or part of the Black Yajurveda. ¹⁰¹

The Carakaśākhā was opposed to the Taittirīyaśākhā of the Black Yajurveda, ¹⁰² and, to a still greater extent, to the schools of the White Yajurveda, represented by the Vājasaneyisaṃhitā. ¹⁰³

One passage from the *Taittirīyāsaṃhitā* has become the starting point of brisk discussions about a possible relation::hip between the Carakaśākhā and the practice of medicine. This passage 104 censures the twin healing gods, the Aśvins, as impure beings because they are physicians who roam about (cara) in the human world; a brāhmaṇa should therefore not practise medicine.

J. Filliozat has argued that the use of the term cara is a shot at the rival school of the Carakas, ¹⁰⁵ who have not inseræd anything similar in their samhitās, the Kāṭhaka-(27.4), Kapisthalakatha- and Maitrūyanīsamhitā, which relate a similar story about the

impurity of the Aśvins and their purification by means of the bahiṣpavamānastotra, but without blaming them for being the physicians of human beings. ¹⁰⁶ D. Chattopadhyaya rejects the interpretation of J. Filliozat and advances that the word cara does not refer to the Carakaśākhā at all, being simply a descriptive epithet of the Aśvins. ¹⁰⁷ J. Filliozat's suggestion that a comparison of the related passages in the recensions of the Black Yajurveda points to a connection between the Carakaśākhā and the practice of medicine ¹⁰⁸ is equally unacceptable to D. Chattopadhyaya, ¹⁰⁹ who postulates that the censuring of the Aśvins and of physicians in general is evidence of a changed attitude and a breaking away from the Rgvedic tradition, in which the Aśvins were extolled and invited to drink soma in the company of the other gods. ¹¹⁰

The references to Caraka and Carakas discussed so far show that these names are very old and go back to Vedic times. A convincing relationship between the Vedic Carakaśākhā and the medical tradition, in particular with the medical authority Caraka, cannot unequivocally be demonstrated. ¹¹¹

The mention of Caraka as the reviser of an earlier medical treatise appears, as mentioned before, for the first time in Dṛḍhabala's text of the Carakasaṇhitā. The other early references to a physician of this name, such as the one attached to Kaniṣka's court, only indicate that the name was given to wandering practitioners of the medical art. Much of the evidence supports the view that groups of Carakas of various types were known, and that Caraka may be seen as designating a member of one of these communities, and not primarily as an individual bearing this name.

Caraka as an individual medical authority and the author of the work rewritten by Dṛḍhabala appears on the scene for the first time distinctly in the period of Vāgbhaṭa. Remarkable is the fact that the treatise regarded as Carakasaṃhitā by Dṛḍhabala was only partly available to him, which may mean that it did not gain wide currency in medical circles.

Another noteworthy point is that an old treatise, probably the Agniveśatantra, changed its name into Carakasamhitā, which is contrary to the practice of calling a work after the pupil who laid down the teachings of his preceptor, disregarding revisions by later authors. 112 The Carakasamhitā embodies the teachings of Ātreya Punarvasu, transmitted to Agniveśa, without ever mentioning Caraka.

P.V. Sharma 113 proposed two possible solutions to this problem: (a) the Agnive-satantra was renamed Carakasamhitā because Agnivesa belonged to the Vedic Caraka school; (b) Caraka, who adhered to the Carakaśākhā, revised Agnivesa's work to such an extent that the bulk was due to his contributions, which made it proper to change the name.

Drdhabala's reasons for crediting Caraka with an old treatise, incompletely preserved, are obscure. It may have been known already as such in his times, he may have chosen Caraka's name on account of its Vedic associations, if these were known tohim, or he may have had a representative of some group of Carakas in mind. ¹¹⁴ All this remains highly speculative.

A number of scholars suppose or are convinced that the Caraka of the Caraka-samhitā belonged to or was connected with the Vedic Caraka-sākhā or its descendants.

J. Filliozat, 115 whose views have already partly been discussed, suggested that

the Vedic Carakas, being not opposed to wandering physicians to the same extent as the Taittirīyas, may have been interested in medicine, and that a practitioner called Caraka may have belonged to their school. J. Filliozat added that the contents of the Carakasamhitā evoke the idea that it derives rather from a brāhmaṇa of a Vedic school than from a court physician, thus overlooking many of its aspects, in particular those indicating that part of the practices described are meant for the benefit of wealthy patients. One of the points to be taken into consideration according to J. Filliozat is the association of a second chief medical authority, Atreya, with the Atreyī school of the Black Yajurveda. He is, however, cautious enough to state that all this does not signify at all that the author of the Carakasaṃhitā lived in the period of elaboration of the Yajurvedic saṃhitās, since the style of the former shows it to be not much anterior to the beginning of the Christian era.

As we have seen already, D. Chattopadhyaya vigorously rejects J. Filliozat's opinions, denying any connection between the Caraka of the Carakasamhitā and the Carakasākhā.

Scholars defending the thesis that the Caraka of the Carakasamhitā is directly related to the Vedic school often assign him to a very early period. Others, not convinced of this relationship or rejecting it, regard him, nevertheless, as a very ancient authority, anterior to Pāṇini, identical with Patañjali, 117 or dating from before the period of Buddha's activity.

The nature, style and contents of the earlier treatises, ascribed to Agniveśa and Caraka, ¹¹⁸ on which Drdhabala's text is based, is largely a matter of speculation. The date of Caraka's revision of the *Agniveśatantra* depends on the availability of reliable internal and external evidence. Early quotations dating from before Drdhabala's times, which might prove that a medical author called Caraka was known, are entirely lacking. ¹¹⁹

Worthy of discussion are several issues which bear on the question what the Carakasamhitā looked like before Drdhabala's revision and completion of the text.

The methodical examination of the Carakasamhitā in search for vestiges of Buddhist thought is of the utmost importance as one of the means which may be helpful in identifying layers of the text as it existed before Drdhabala's time, since it is very unlikely that he would have added elements of this type.

The question whether or not Buddhist influences are detectable in the Caraka-samhitā is touched upon frequently in the secondary literature, but few scholars have searched seriously for these traces. The majority of the Indian authors simply deny that Buddhism had any impact, which is based on the preconceived idea that Caraka belongs to a period preceding Buddha's activity. 120

One of the very few Indian scholars to study the subject seriously is P.V. Sharma, in whose opinion the following elements point to an acquaintance of the author of the Carakasamhitä with early Buddhist doctrines. ¹²¹

The kṣaṇabhaṇgavāda (the doctrine concerning the momentariness of any conglomeration of elements) was known, ¹²² as well as the concept of svabhāvoparama (the cessation of the dhātus due to their svabhāva). ¹²³ The indriyabuddhis are said to be ksanika (momentary). ¹²⁴ The pratītyasamutpāda (chain of dependent origination) ¹²⁵

and the Four Noble Truths ¹²⁶ were known. Perception (pratyakṣa) and inference (anumāna) are, as in Buddhist logic, the chief means of acquiring valid knowledge (pramāṇa). ¹²⁷ Pratyaya and āyatana are used as synonyms of nidāna and hetu. ¹²⁸ The term upadhā has the same meaning as upādāna (grasping) in Buddhist thought. ¹²⁹ Vedanā (sensation) has the same position in the *Carakasaṃhitā* as it occupies in Buddhist texts. ¹³⁰ The ṣaḍdhātuka nature of the embryo and the individual human being is laid stress on. ¹³¹ The five pañcakas of Caraka ¹³² resemble the three groups of six dhātus of the Buddhists. The use of manas as a synonym of sattva resembles the Buddhist tradition, in which citta, manas and vijñapti are synonyms of vijñāna. ¹³³ The position of prajñā in the *Carakasaṃhitā* has affinities with the significance of this term in Buddhist thought. ¹³⁴ The six promoters of prāṇa (prāṇavardhana), etc., may be related to the six pāramitās of the Buddhists. ¹³⁵ The *Carakasaṃhitā* employs some peculiar words which are found in Buddhist texts. ¹³⁶

Other authors who studied the subject are Atrideva, S. Dasgupta, the Gulabkunverba team, R.K. Sharma and Bhagwan Dash, Jyotir Mitra, and E. Windisch.

Atrideva admitted Buddhist influences, but attributed these to $\bar{\text{A}}$ treya or Agnivesa. ¹³⁷

S. Dasgupta was convinced of Buddhist influences on the Carakasaṃhitā. 138

The Gulabkunverba team states that Caraka was acquainted with the kṣaṇikavāda. 139

R.K. Sharina and Bhagwan Dash acknowledge that the principles of Buddhist philosophy were known. ¹⁴⁰

Jyotir Mitra expressed as his view that the use of some terms indicates more or less a peripheral glimpse of Buddhism. 141

E. Windisch advanced the idea that the concept of sattva in the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$ was inspired by Buddhist thought. ¹⁴²

Although not all the features, highlighted by P.V. Sharma and others, are convincing, it seems nevertheless reasonable to concede that traces of Buddhist thought are clearly discernible in the *Carakasamhitā* and belong to the layer antedating Drdhabala's revision.

P.V. Sharma formulated as his opinion that the influences of Buddhism, in combination with the overall orientation towards Brāhmaṇism of the Carakasaṇhitā, ¹⁴³ show that it was composed in a period when Buddhism was prevalent side by side with Brāhmaṇic culture, or in an age when, though Buddhism was still a living force, Brāhmaṇism was gaining the upper hand, i.e., during the third or early second century B.C., at the juncture of the Maurya and Śunga periods. ¹⁴⁴

The same scholar constructed an elaborate framework of external evidence in support of this dating. 145

P.V. Sharma is firmly convinced that Caraka as a medical authority was not yet known to Pāṇini. Patañjali, the author of the *Mahābhāṣya*, is regarded as slightly later than or a younger contemporary of Caraka. ¹⁴⁶

Important elements of P.V. Sharma's framework are: the *Milindapāñha* ¹⁴⁷ has many things in common with the *Carakasaṃhitā*, ¹⁴⁸ which indicates that they belong to the same period; Aśvaghosa, ¹⁴⁹ whose works bear witness to his familiarity with

āyurveda, drew extensively on Caraka's work, ¹⁵⁰ in spite of the fact that his name is not mentioned; a number of formulae found in the Nāvanītaka¹⁵¹ are quoted from the Carakasamhitā; ¹⁵² the Yājñavalkyasmṛti¹⁵³ has taken much of its medical material from Caraka. ¹⁵⁴

This evidence, taken together, is thought to confirm the chronological scheme developed by P.V. Sharma.

The other material adduced by him in favour of his dating of Caraka is of various kinds, mostly consisting of internal evidence. P.V. Sharma points to the influence of the *Manusmrti* ¹⁵⁵ and other dharmaśāstra texts, ¹⁵⁶ the Grhyasūtras, ¹⁵⁷ and the Purānas. ¹⁵⁸

References to a king, certain types of officials, and to hospitals, ¹⁵⁹ together with signs showing that the central administration of the state was growing weak, are seen as indicating that the *Carakasamhitā* belongs to the waning stage of the Mauryan empire or the period of the Śungas. ¹⁶⁰

Important for the determination of the chronological position of the *Carakasaṃhitā* are its philosophical concepts, which are closely related to those of the Sāṃkhya, Nyāya and Vaiśesika schools. ¹⁶¹

The main features of the Sāṇkhya¹⁶² doctrines in the *Carakasaṇhitā*, which differ from those found in Īśvarakṛṣṇa's *Sāṃkhyakārikā*, ¹⁶³ are: the tattvas are twenty-four in number and consist of the ten senses, ¹⁶⁴ manas, the objects of the five senses of perception, and the eightfold prakṛti (prakṛti in the restricted sense, mahat, ahaṇnkāra, and the five mahābhūtas); ¹⁶⁵ the puruṣa is identified with the avyakta (unmamifested) part of prakṛti; ¹⁶⁶ the vikāras (evolutionary products) of prakṛti are collectively called kṣetra, while the avyakta part of prakṛti is regarded as the kṣetrajāa (knower of the field); ¹⁶⁷ the conglomeration of this avyakta with its later products generates the living beings; the tanmātras are not explicitly mentioned; ¹⁶⁸ rajas and tamas represent bad states of the mind, sattva represents good ones; the ultimate state of emancipation is either absolute annihilation or characterless absolute existence and is spoken of as the Brahman state; the senses are bhautika, i.e., formed of matter. ¹⁶⁹

This account of Sāṃkhya¹⁷⁰ agrees, according to S. Dasgupta, ¹⁷¹ with the version propounded by Pañcasikha in the *Mahābhārata*. ¹⁷² A cogent refutation of this opinion is due to V.M. Bedekar, ¹⁷³ who studied and summarized the differences between a fluid proto-Sāṃkhya, found in the Mokṣadharına ¹⁷⁴ of the *Mahābhārata*, the *Carakasaṇhitā*, and the *Buddhacarita*, ¹⁷⁵ and the later philosophical Sāṃkhya. ¹⁷⁶

S. Dasgupta ¹⁷⁷ was disposed to thinkthat the early form of Sāṇkhya represented by the *Mahābhārata* and the *Carakasaṃbitā* is the same as the maulikya (original) school, mentioned together with an uttara (later) school in Gunaratna's commentary, called *Tarkarahasyadī pikā*, on Haribhadrasūri's *Saddarśanasamuccaya*. ¹⁷⁸

The version of Sāṃkhya as found in the *Carakasaṃhit*ā ¹⁷⁹ is earlier than that of the *Sāṃkhyakārikā*, ¹⁸⁰ which belongs to about the period A.D. 350-450, ¹⁸¹ and may belong to the period of Pañcasikha ¹⁸² and the *Saṣṭitantra*, ¹⁸³ i.e., about 100 B.C.-A.D. 200. ¹⁸⁴

This establishes that the text of Dṛḍhabala's version of the *Carakasaṇṇtiā* contains important elements belonging to an older laver. ¹⁸⁵

The connections between the *Carakasaṃhitā* and the Yoga system ¹⁸⁶ are very different from those between the *Carakasaṃhitā* and the Sāṃkhya school. P.V. Sharma ¹⁸⁷ came to the conclusion that the fundamental concepts of the *Yogasūtras* are completely absent from the *Carakasaṃhitā*. ¹⁸⁸ Others share this opinion, ¹⁸⁹ while a few authors only suspect some influence ¹⁹⁰ or even postulate a more or less close relationship. ¹⁹¹

Concepts and views related to those found in the Nyāya and Vaiśeṣika philosophical systems are conspicuous in the *Carakasambitā*, but differences are present as well.

The means of acquiring valid knowledge (pramāṇa), ¹⁹² as acknowledged in the *Carakasaṇhitā*, are four in number: ¹⁹³ āptopadeśa (the testimony of trustworthy persons), ¹⁹⁴ pratyakṣa (perception), ¹⁹⁵ anumāṇa (inference), ¹⁹⁶ and yukti. ¹⁹⁷ Other pramāṇas are not recognized. ¹⁹⁸

The position of yukti as a distinct pramāṇa is one of the salient features of the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$, 199

The data about the pramāṇas show that the *Carakasaṇḥitā* does not commit itself to the views of a particular philosophical school or the precursors of these schools and maintains a partly independent, partly eclectic position.

S. Dasgupta's assertion ²⁰⁰ that the *Nyāyasūtra*s drew their ideas on the pramāṇas from Caraka's work cannot seriously be defended. It seems reasonable to regard the material on the pramāṇas in the *Carakasaṃhitā* as belonging to a period before the establishment and codification of the doctrines which are peculiar to each of the darśanas, in particular as anterior to the time in which the *Nyāyasūtra*s took their final form, ²⁰¹ i.e., probably around the second century A.D. ²⁰²

The technical terms relating to debates, to which part of Ca.Vi.8 is devoted, are, apart from the *Carakasaṃbitā*, only found in texts on logic.²⁰³ A large number of them occur in the *Nyāyasūtra*s; many differences, however, are noticeable.²⁰⁴

S. Dasgupta, ²⁰⁵ in line with his views on the pramāṇas, supposed it to be not improbable that the *Nyāyasūtra*s derived their theory of five propositions ²⁰⁶ from Caraka. ²⁰⁷

Again, it is not necessary at all to presume that the *Nyāyasūtras* borrowed from the *Carakasaṃhitā*; the material found in Caraka's work more probably derives from a floating body of knowledge. ²⁰⁸

The material related to Nyāya in the $Carakasanhit\bar{a}$ points to a date for the work that precedes the second century A.D.

The relationship between the *Carakasaṃhitā* and the Vaiśesika system is remarkable because key concepts of Vaiśesika are dealt with in the very first chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and are employed, applied to medicine, throughout the treatise. The way in which these concepts are defined and made use of closely resembles, without being exactly the same, their definitions and uses in the *Vaiśesikasūtras*. ²⁰⁹

The opinions of scholars on the type of connection between āyurvedic and Vaiśeşika thought vary considerably. ²¹⁰ Some assert that the Vaiśeşika borrowed from Caraka, ²¹¹ while others defend a diametrically opposed view. ²¹²

The most probable conclusion that can be drawn from the available material in the

Carakasaṃhitā is that it derives from a period not far removed in time from that in which the Vaiśeṣikasūtras achieved their present form, i.e., A.D. 50–150.²¹³ This hypothesis is supported by passages which has the Carakasaṃhitā in common with the Vaiśeṣikasūtras or which resemble each other closely.²¹⁴

Not much attention has been given to the relationship between Caraka and the Pūrvamīmāṃsā for the reason that influences can hardly be detected. S.P. Gupta, ²¹⁵ one of those who see traces of this school in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, points to the term niyati, the mention of a yājāikasamaya, ²¹⁶ the references to homa, daivavyapāśraya, etc. Jyotir Mitra ²¹⁷ also examined the connections between the *Carakasaṃhitā* and the Pūrvamīmāṃsā. He discusses the samayas, ²¹⁸ the importance of homa, ²¹⁹ and a number of other subjects. His reflections are based on the conviction that the elements noticed are due to Ātreya Punarvasu, whom he regards as a contemporary of Bādarāyaṇa, the teacher of Jaimini, who wrote the *Mīmāṃsāsūtras*. ²²⁰

The connections between the $Carakasanhit\bar{a}$ and Vedānta have not much been studied either.

P.V. Sharma ²²¹ expressed as his opinion that the concept of the pāūcabhautika nature of the body, not found in Nyāya-Vaiśeṣika, is near to Vedānta views. B. Seal²²² held the same conviction. S.P. Gupta ²²³ sees traces of Vedānta in the avyaktarp brahma, ²²⁴ brahman as a synonym of mokṣa, ²²⁵ and the brahmabhūto bhūtātmā. ²²⁶ Jyotir Mitra ²²⁷ points to Vedānta influence in the avyaktarp brahma, ²²⁸ the brahmabhūto bhūtātmā, the absence of the Sāṃkhya concept of mūlaprakṛti, ²²⁹ the views concerning the ātman, ²³⁰ the concept of upadhā. ²³¹ and the synonyms of mokṣa. ²³²

The philosophical material in the *Carakasamhitā* leads inevitably to the conclusion that it consists of a mosaic of elements derived from diverse schools of thought, often modified in the service of medicine, and mixed with concepts not found elsewhere. ²³³

The same material suggests that the author called Caraka cannot have lived later than about A.D.150–200 and not much earlier than about 100 B.C.

Some stray material bearing on Caraka's identity and date may be added.

An argument in defence of an early date for Caraka, put forward probably for the first time by Hemarājaśarman, ²³⁴ and repeated by later authors, is the absence of the names for the days of the week in the *Carakasanhitā*. ²³⁵

P.C. Rāy argued in favour of the thesis that Caraka belongs to the early Buddhistic era on the grounds that the chemical information in the *Carakasaṃhitā* with reference to metals and metallic preparations is of a less advanced character than that in the *Arthaśāstra*, composed in his view between 321–296 B.C. ²³⁶

Caraka is sometimes supposed to be identical with Patañjali. ²³⁷ A late tradition, represented by the *Bhāvaprakāśa*, ²³⁸ makes him an avatāra of Śeṣa, ²³⁹ also called Ananta, who was incarnated as the son of a muni, who became known as Caraka because he came to the earth in the guise of a spy (cara). The description of this muni in the *Bhāvaprakāśa* made Bhagvat Sinh Jee²⁴⁰ assert that the name of Caraka's father was Viśuddha. ²⁴¹ Some ²⁴² assume that Caraka was thought to be an avatāra of the

great Nāga called Śeṣa because he was of nāgavaṃśa.

Al-Bīrūnī²⁴³ refers to a tradition claiming that Caraka was a ṛṣi in the Dvāparayuga, when his name was Agniveśa; later, he was known as Caraka, i.e., the intelligent one. This material does not affect the conclusion reached.

Some dates assigned to Caraka are: the middle of the first millennium A.D., ²⁴⁴ the second century A.D., ²⁴⁵ the period of Kanişka, A.D.100, ²⁴⁶ the first century A.D., ²⁴⁷ the period 140 B.C.-A.D. 120, ²⁴⁸ slightly later than the Buddhacarita (50 B.C.-A.D.100), ²⁴⁹ the period 140 B.C.-A.D.60, ²⁵⁰ the first or second century B.C., ²⁵¹ between the second century B.C., ²⁵¹ between the second century B.C., ²⁵² 144 or 142 B.C., ²⁵⁵ 200 B.C., ²⁵⁶ earlier than 175 B.C., ²⁵⁷ 320 B.C., ²⁵⁸ about 500 B.C., ²⁵⁹ the period of the *Mahābhārata* or somewhat later, ²⁶⁰ the eighth century B.C., ²⁶¹ between 1,000 and 800 B.C., ²⁶² earlier than Pāṇini, ²⁶³ about the period of the Brāhmanas, later than the Śatapathabrāhmaṇa, but earlier than Pāṇini and earlier than Buddha, ²⁶⁴ the period of the Brāhmaṇas, long before the *Nyāya*- and *Vaiśeṣikasūtras*, ²⁶⁵ about 1,000 B.C., ²⁶⁶ 500 years before Pāṇini, in the same period as the *Yājñavalkyasmṛti*, ²⁶⁷ earlier than Pāṇini, at the end of the Dvāpara- or the beginning of the Kaliyuga, ²⁶⁸ the beginning of the Kaliyuga.

Chapter 11 Caraka in the Islamic world

The Carakasaṃhitā was translated into Persian¹ by an Indian physician, usually referred to as Manka,² whose actual name is supposed to have been Mankha or Māṇikya.³ This Manka came from India to the 'Abbāsid court at Baghdad on the request of the caliph Hārūn al-Rashīd, who was suffering from a disease which his own physicians were unable to cure. After successfully treating his royal patient, Manka apparently stayed in Iran and may have embraced Islam. He was appointed chief physician in the royal hospital in Baghdad and rendered a number of Indian scientific treatises into Persian.⁴ Works he is said to have translated are the Carakasaṃhitā, Suśrutasaṃhitā, Śānāq's Book on poisons (Kitāb al-sumūm),⁵ and a book on the names of Indian medicinal plants.⁶

Manka is also mentioned in the *Kitāb al-bayān wa'l-tabyīn* (Book of eloquence and exposition) of al-Jāḥiẓ (ninth century) and the *'Uyūn al-akhbār* (Choice Histories) of Ibn Qutayba (ninth century). ⁷

Manka's Persian version of the Carakasaṃhitā was translated into Arabic by 'Abdullāh ibn 'Al \bar{l} .

Arabic authors who mention Caraka⁹ or give extracts from his work are: 'Alī ibn-Sahl al-Ṭabarī in his Firdaws al-ḥikma; ¹⁰ Ibn al-Nadīm in his Fihrist al-'ulūm; ¹¹ Wādih al-Ya'qūbī; ¹² al-Rāzī in his Kitāb al-ḥāwī fī'l-ṭibb; ¹³ Ibn-Sīnā in his al-Qānūn fī'l-ṭibb; ¹⁴ al-Bīrūnī in his Taḥqīq mā li'l-hind ¹⁵ and Kitāb al-ṣaydana fī'l ṭibb; ¹⁶ Ibn Abī Usaybi'a in his 'Uyūn al-anbā' fī tabaqāt al-atibbā'; ¹⁷ Ibn al-Baytār. ¹⁸

Yoḥannān bar Serāpy
 \bullet n (Yūḥannā ibn Sarābiyūn)^19 was also acquainted with Caraka.
 20

Caraka was one of the sources of the Ma'din al-Shifa'.21

Chapter 12 Caraka in Tibet

Caraka is called G-yo-ba-can in the title of the Tibetan translation of the Brahmave-dasārangadharacaraka; ¹ the same name is found in the Tibetan translation of the Aṣṭā-ngahṛdayanāmavaidiiryakabhāṣya. ²Remarkable is the absence of Caraka's name from the list of medical authorities in the Mahāvyutpatti. ³

The Carakasannitā was wanslated into Tibetan and from the Tibetan into Mongolian. ⁴ References to the Tibetan translation are available in the Dpal-Idan gso-ba rigpaḥi khog-bugs, ⁵ written by Sde-srid sans-rgyas rgya-mcho. ⁶

The Tibetan medical tradition is acquainted with a work called *Ca-ra-ka sde-brgyad*, apparently thought to be related to the *Carakasaṃhitā*. The eight parts of this treatise were, according to the Tibetan tradition, written down by Nam-so-skyes and seven co-disciples: Than-la-har, Rkan-gāis-spyod, Hdrob-skyon-bu, Me-bzin-hjug, Lug-sna, Mu-khyud-hjin, and Bśol-hgro-skyes. This group of eight, to whom Indra transmitted the science, descended from the devas on the paternal side, but had a human mother.

All these names or part of them, together with some other ones, turn up in a number of Tibetan medical works 17 as designating pupils of either Rygun-ses 18 or Lhahi dban-po brgya-byin. 19

The ṛṣi Dpal-Idan hhhren-ba²⁰ wrote a commentary on the first part of the Ca-ra-ka sde-brgyad, called Bstod-hgrel ñi zla sbar bkab, ²¹ and a commentary on the second part, called Smad-hgrel hphrul-gyi Ide-mig. ²² Both commentaries together are said to comprise 600 chapters. ²³

Several stories are known about the Ca-ra-ka sde-brgyad. One of these²⁴ tells that the medical science was taught to Yid-las skyes²⁵ and other attendants by Rig-pahi Ye-ses,²⁶ and emanation of Bhaisa jyaguru, the Medicine Buddha; the treatise transmitted was the Rgyud-bźi, but the only one to grasp its whole meaning was Yid-las skyes. The Deva attendants heard it as the medical text called Gso-dpyad hbum-pa,²⁷ the Buddhists as the Rigs-gsum mgon-po,²⁸ the rsis as the Ca-ra-ka sde-brgyad, and the Hindus as the Dban-phyug nag-pohi rgyud.²⁹

Another version ³⁰ relates that Brahmā, wounded by Rāhu, and remembering the medical teachings of the Buddha, composed a medical treatise called *Gso-dpyad hbum-pa*. He taught it to his disciple Skye-dguḥi bdag-po myur-ba³¹ and to the Aśvins; ³² the Aśvins handed it down to Indra, Indra to Rgyun-śes-kyi bu. ³³ The science passed, successively, from Rgyun-śes-kyi bu to Than-la-hbar, Dkah-gñis-spyod, Mu-khyud-hjin, Bśol-hgro-skyed, Me-bźin-hjug, Lug-nag, ³⁴ and Rgya-skegs-sna. ³⁵ Each of these eight wrote a commentary called *Ca-ra-ka sde-brgyad*. Through these

1 Carakasamhitā

118

great divine sages (devarsi), the science of medicine came down from the gods to the human world, to the king of Benares; it was called the divine Brāhma system. ³⁶

The piography of G-yu-thog yon-tan mgon-po mentions six systems of medicine: the system of binding diseases by spells, which belongs to the Asuras, the Gsodpyad hhum-pa of Brahmā, the Bodhisattva system, laid down in a text called the Mercy of self-release, the Ca-ra-ka sde-brgyad of the rsis, the Mahādevatantra of the non-Buddhists, and the Rigs-gsum mgon-po rgyud of the Buddhists.

Other Tibetan medical works referring to Caraka are the *Dpag-bsam ljon bzan* of Sum-pa mkhan-po, ³⁷ the *Mkhas-paḥi dgaḥ-ston* of Chos-rgyal don-grub, ³⁸ Jayapaṇḍita's hiography of G-yu-thog-pa in the *Thob-yig*, ³⁹ and the *Śes-bya kun-khyab* of Hjam-mgon koń-sprul blo-gros mthaḥ-yas. ⁴⁰

Chapter 13 Authorities associated with the Carakasamhitā

Atri

Atri¹ is the name of a priestly family already found in Vedic literature. Many hymns of the *Rgveda*, in particular of mandala five, are attributed to the Atris and members of their family, the Ātrayas. ² A number of myths about an individual seer called Atri are referred to in the *Rgveda*, *Atharvaveda* and some Brāhmaṇas. One of these myths tells that the Aśvins saved him from a burning pit; ³ once, the Aśvins are said to have made him young again. ⁴

Atri is a well known sage in many branches of Sanskrit literature. He is often mentioned in the epics, Purāṇas, etc.⁵ He belongs to the group of seven seers (saptarṣi), 6 and is one of the lords of created beings (Prajāpati).⁷

Atri's name is connected with a number of sciences, 8 such as dharmaśāstra, 9 jyotiṣa, 10 vāstuśāstra, 11 and medicine.

Medical authors and works referring to or quoting Atri are: the Bṛhannighaṇṭuratnākara, ¹² Carakasaṃhitā, ¹³ Haṃsarājanidāna, Hārītasaṃhitā, ¹⁴ Kāśyapaslṃhitā, ¹⁵ Lakṣmaṇotsava, Nṛṣiṃhabhaṭṭa's Tāmbūlakalpasaṃgraha, Pālakāpya's Huṣtyāyurveda, ¹⁶ Aśubodha and Nityabodha Senagupta in their commentary on the Rusaratnasamuccaya, ¹⁷ Śivadāsasena, ¹⁸ Ṭodara, ¹⁹ Vāgbhaṭa's Aṣṭāṇgahṛdayavaidūryarabhāṣya and Aṣṭāṇgasaṃgraha, ²⁰ Vāṇeśvara Bhaṭṭācārya's Rasaratnadīpikā, ²¹ Vāṣudeva's Vāṣudeva'nubhava, Viṣvanātha Dvivedī's Rasendrasambhava, ²² and the Yogaratnākara. ²³

Vāsudeva's Vāsudevānubhava mentions among its sources, next to Atri, a Bṛhadatri and Laghvatri. These works are reminiscent of similar versions of the Ātreyasaɪṇ-hitā (= Hārītasamhitā).²⁴

An Atrisamhitā is referred to or quoted in Baladeva Prasāda Misra's Āyŵrvedacintāmaņi,²⁵ Jīvānandavidyāsāgara's commentary on the Rasendrasārasamgrana,²⁶ Rangajyotirvid's Vicārasudhākara,²⁷ and the commentary of Āśubodha and Ninyabodha Senagupta on the Rasaratnasamuccaya.²⁸

Quotations from Atri and the Atrisaṃhitā may actually be from the Hāritasaṃhitā. 29

Noteworthy features of these quotations and references are: an Atrisamhiti is mentioned, occasionally next to an Ātreyasamhitā; Atri takes the place of Ātreya in some traditions about the origin of āyurveda; Atri is identified with Kṛṣṇātreya; some recipes are attributed to him; a definition of a drug action (saṇṣśamana) and descriptions of yantras (and a puṭa) are ascribed to him; he is interested in elephantology.

Atri is sometimes regarded as the medical teacher of his son, Ātreya; ³⁰ Ātri's wife, Anasūyā, ³¹ is sometimes supposed to be the same as Candrabhāgā. ³²

Atri is in a number of sources described as the father of three sons: Dattātreya, Krsnātreya (= Durvāsas), and Soma (= Ātreya). 33

The Indian tradition ascribes to Atri an Atrisamhitā, dealing with kāyacikitsā. 34 The Buddhacarita of Aśvaghosa, on the other hand, states that not Atri, but Ātreya, was famous as a medical authority. 35

The Tibetan tradition regards Atri (Rgyun-ses) as one of the sages who received the medical science from a disciple of Indra. ³⁶

Ātreva

Ātreya is a famous medical authority. ³⁷ He is the teacher of Agnivesa and other pupils in the *Carakasaṃhitā*; he instructs Bhela in the *Bhelasaṃhitā*, Hārīta in the *Hārītasaṃhitā*. ³⁸

Several sages called Ātreya are known in Indian literature from the earhest times onwards. ³⁹ A number of hymns of the *Rgveda*, in particular hymns of mandala five, are attributed to various members of the Atri family. ⁴⁰ Vedic literature distinguishes some of these seers by additions to their common name. Two among these compound names are of some interest because they contain the element vasu, also met with in the name of the medical teacher, Ātreya Punarvasu; ⁴¹ these two names are Ātreya Vasuśruta ⁴² and Ātreya Vasūyu. ⁴³ An Ātreya Puruvasu is known from a Brāhmana. ⁴⁴

Ātreya is a name connected with the Black Yajurveda. One of its schools is the Āmeyīśākhā. ⁴⁵ The Baudhāyanagṛhyasūtra refers to an Ātreya as the Padapāṭhakāra of the Taittīriyasaṃhitā, one of the recensions of the Black Yajurveda. ⁴⁶ A commentary of Ātreya on the Taittīrīya Prātiśākhya is mentioned in Somayajvan's Tribhāṣyaratna. ⁴⁷ An Ātreya figures in the Aitareyabrāhmaṇa as a purohita ⁴⁸ of Anga. ⁴⁹ The Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad describes Ātreya as the teacher of a Bhāradvāja. ⁵⁰

Ātreya is a term used for a type of priest closely related to the sadasya. 51

The Gaṇapāṭha to Pāṇini's granunar mentions Ātreya. 52

Ātreya is a name occurring several times in the *Mahābhārata*, where he figures as a disciple of Vāmadeva. 53

The Brahmapurāṇa relates that he resided in an āśrama on the banks of the Gomatī and visited Indra's heaven. 54

A people, called the \bar{A} treyas, is known too; this people is mentioned as associated with the Bhāradvājas and other peoples. 55

The identity of the Ātreya of the medical tradition is a much discussed problem, complicated by the fact that at least three, probably even four, different persons of this name are known: the Ātreya mentioned in Buddhist sources, Ātreya Punarvasu, Kṛṣṇātreya³⁶ and bhiksu Ātreya.⁵⁷

Some Buddhist texts relate that an Ātreya, a famous physician residing in Takṣa-śilā, ⁵⁸ was Jīvaka's ⁵⁹ medical teacher. The name of this teacher, absent from the Pali sources, ⁶⁰ is given as Ātreya in a Buddhist Sanskrit text ⁶¹ and in the Tibetan version of the Vinaya (hdul-ba). ⁶²

A.F.R. Hoemle identified this Ātreya with the Ātreya Punarvasu of the Carakasam-hitā, ⁶³ without underpinning his view by arguments. His guess is rejected by almost all later authors, on the strength of the following pieces of evidence: several different Ātreyas are known; the Ātreya of the Buddhist sources is not called Punarvasu, but sometimes referred to as Māṇakācārya, Kapilākṣa, or Pingala; ⁶⁴ he is not, as Ātreya Punarvasu, a specialist in internal medicine, but a surgeon; Takṣaśilā is not mentioned in the Carakasamhitā, where Ātreya is described as teaching in Kāmpilya; the names of the six pupils of Ātreya Punarvasu are absent from the Buddhist sources. ⁶⁵

Evidence validating Hoemle's identification is indeed almost entirely lacking, while much tells against it. One single detail seems to count in its favour: the *Bhelasamhitā* describes Ātreya as visiting the country of Gāndhāra, ⁶⁶ a chief city of which was Takṣaśilā. This statement does, however, not carry conviction by the additional detail that Ātreya had in Gandhāra a conversation with the royal sage Nagnajit, known already as residing there from Vedic literature. ⁶⁷

It is obvious that Hoemle was not fully aware of the implications of his suggestion. The name of Ātreya as Jīvaka's teacher occurs in Buddhist sources, most of them non-Indian too, from a much later date than the age in which Buddha lived, which makes it unjustified to deduce that the former was a contemporary of the latter.

The rejection of Hoemle's claim by most Indian authors is connected with their conviction that the Ātreya of the Carakasaṇṇitā belongs to pre-Buddhistic times and is essentially the same as the Ātreya of Vedic literature. This view gives rise to many difficulties.

Vedic literature is already acquainted with a number of different Ātreyas, a fact that is often conveniently overlooked or explained away by assuming that the Ātreya one is concerned with is not one of those whose gotra name was Ātreya, but the son of the venerable sage Atri. ⁶⁸

The reference to Kāmpilya in the *Carakasaṃhitā*⁶⁹ is, in combination with the absence of any mention of Takṣaśilā, often advanced in support of the thesis that Ātreya belongs to Vedic times. This reasoning is lacking in stringency. Kāmpīla or Kāmpilī are indeed names found in Vedic texts,⁷⁰ but the city of Kāmpilya⁷¹ as the capital of southern Pāñcāla⁷² does not disappear at all from later Indian literature, being known to the epics,⁷³ Purāṇas,⁷⁴ *Kathāsaritsāgara*,⁷⁵ Jain literature, etc.,⁷⁶ which makes the argument lose its force. The absence of Takṣaśilā among the toponyms of the *Carakasaṃhitā*, seen as a proof of Ātreya's anteriority to the rise of the city, may as well be related to the paucity of references to Buddhism in the saṃhitā and its orientation towards Hinduist orthodoxy.

Cogent reasons to consider Ātreya Punarvasu to be the same as the Ātreya or one of the Ātreyas of Vedic literature are absent. The only Ātreya Punarvasu known is the one who teaches āyurveda to Agniveśa, Bhela and other pupils. The Aṣṭādhyāyī is acquainted with this type of name, connected with the lunar mansion under which a person is bom, and mentions Punarvasu as one of the examples. The Astadhyāyī is acquainted with the lunar mansion under which a person is bom, and mentions Punarvasu as one of the examples.

The Ātreya Punarvasu of the medical tradition need not be regarded as a historical personality. It is more sensible to see in him, as brought forward by J. Filliozat, ⁷⁹ a legendary figure, selected on account of the pronounced tendency of the kāyacikitsā-

school to demonstrate its being rooted in Vedic lore. The venerable \bar{A} treya of the Vedic texts proved to be suitable to this purpose.

The Caraka- and Bhelasamhitā give a number of details concerning their protagonist, who is called Ātreya, ⁸⁰ Ātreya Punarvasu, ⁸¹ and Punarvasu, ⁸² the son of Atri. ⁸³

The Carakasamhitā once refers to him as Cāndrabhāgin; ⁸⁴ the Bhelasamhitā mentions him as Cāndrabhāga and Cāndrabhāga Punarvasu. ⁸⁵ These qualifications have occasioned a number of interpretations; ⁸⁶ Ātreya was the son of Candrabh ga, ⁸⁷ the name of his mother was Candrabhāgā, ⁸⁸ he lived on the banks of the Candrabh gā river, ⁸⁹ he was born in the delta formed by the rivers Candrā and Bhāgā, ⁹⁰ he lived on the Candrabh ga mountain, ⁹¹ or in a place called Candrabhāga. ⁹²

Places where Ātreya delivered his teachings are the Caitraratha forest, 93 Gāndhāra, 94 the slopes of the Himālaya, 95 Kāmpilya, 96 and Pañcaganga. 97

Ātreya is referred to as a brahmarsi 98 or maharsi, 99 many laudatory epithets are bestowed on him, in particular in the Carakasamhitā. 100

The opening chapter of the Carakasaṇhitā confers the impression that Ātreya received the āyurveda from Bharadvāja. The story tells that Bharadvāja went to the abode of Indra, who transmitted the science to the former, who passed in on to a group of sages. Bharadvāja, albeit a member of this group, is not explicitly mentioned again, which makes some scholars doutbful on Bharadvāja's role as an intermediary, the more so since disagreeing versions of the story are known. This doubt is reinforced by the ambiguities surrounding Bharadvāja. Some versions of the myth about the divine origin of āyurveda make Ātreya obtain the āyurveda directly from Indra or even fail to mention Bharadvāja. 101

The relationship between \bar{A} treya and Bharadv \bar{a} ja is complex and not lucid at all. 102 An Indian tradition, known to Cakrap \bar{a} ņidatta, but rejected by him, made the two even into one and the same person. 103

Some Indian authors are convinced that Atri, \bar{A} treya's father, instructed him in the medical science. Vamadeva is occasionally mentioned as one of \bar{A} treya's teachers. Vamadeva is occasionally mentioned as one of \bar{A} treya's teachers.

Ātreya is one of the eighteen founders of the medical science in the Parāśara-tantra. 106

An interesting tale found in the Bower MS describes a gathering of sages in which both Ātreya and Suśruta take part; ¹⁰⁷ this may be the only occasion on which both authorities meet each other.

Atri and Ātreya are sometimes seen as interchangeable names. ¹⁰⁸ The Atri of the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha ¹⁰⁹ is probably the same as Ātreya. P. Cordier regarded the Atri, mentioned in Naraharibhaṭṭa's Khaṇḍanamaṇḍana ¹¹⁰ as the teacher of Khāraṇādi, as identical with Ātreya Punarvasu; ¹¹¹ the same interpretation was applied to the Atri of the pariśiṣṭādhyāya of the Hārītasaṃhitā. ¹¹² Aśvaghoṣa's Buddhacarita, however, says explicitly that it was not Atri, but Ātreya, who was well known as a physician. ¹¹³

Some quotations from Atri and the Atrisamhitā, on the other hand, are from Ātreya and the Ātreyasamhitā. 114

Ātreya (Punarvasu) is also confused with Kṛṣṇātreya, 115 and, more rarely, with bhiksu Ātreya. 116 Some consider him to be the same as Dattātreya. 117

Ātreya's name as a medical authority spread to Tibet. The Tibetan translation of the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā calls him Rgyun-ses-kyi bu, 118 the name given to him in many Tibetan texts. 119

Medical works attributed to Ātreya or associated with his name are: 120 Ātreya-samhitā, Ātreyasamhitāsāra, Ātreyasārasamgraha, Ātreyavāgyoga, Nāḍījīāna, Uṣṭra-payaḥkalpa, and Uttarakārikā.

The Ātreyasaṃhitā, recorded in MS catalogues, is usually identical with one of the versions of the Hārītasaṃhitā.¹²¹ Some Indian authors, basing themselves on quotations from Kṛṣṇātreya and being convinced of his identity with Ātreya Punarvasu, refer to the Ātreyasamhitā as a work that is no longer available. ¹²²

A number of quotations from an \bar{A} treyasaṃhitā are neither from the Carakasaṃhitā, nor from the $H\bar{a}$ n̄tasaṃhitā, and are moreover not identical with verses attributed to Kṛṣṇātreya. 123

Details on the Ātreyasaṃhitāsāra¹²⁴ and Ātreyasārasaṃgraha¹²⁵ are not known to me, but both texts may well be related to the Hārītasamhitā.

Information on the Ātreyavāgyoga, Nādījñāna, ¹²⁶ and Ustrapayaḥkal pa ¹²⁷ is lacking. The Uttarakārikā is quoted in Niścala's Ratnaprabhā on the Cakradatta. ¹²⁸

Quotations ascribed to Ātreya ¹²⁹ may be from the *Carakasaṃhitā* or *Hārītasaṃhitā*, from some unknown work, or may consist of verses simply attributed to him as an ancient medical authority.

 \bar{A} weya, Caraka and Hārīta are in some works mentioned as three different authorities. ¹³⁰

Authors and works citing Ātreya on subjects not dealt with in the Caraka- and Hārītasaṃhitā are Aghoranātha, the Bower MS, Gaņeśaśarman in the Pākapradīpa, the Śāligrāmanighaṇṭu, Ṭoḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, and Vinodalālasena's Āyurvedavijñāna. [3]

One verse, said to be from Ātreya in Ṭoḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, actually occurs in the Suśrutasarnhitā, 132 while another verse, found in the same treatise, refers to Vāgbhata. 133

The works quoted as Bṛhadātreya, Kaniṣṭhātreya, Madhyamātreya and Vṛddhātreya may, at least partially, be versions of the Hārītasamhitā. 134

Dharmaśāstra works connected with the name \bar{A} treya are the \bar{A} treyasmṛti and \bar{A} treyadharmaśāstra. 135

A work called Ātreyatantra is mentioned in Gunaratna's commentary on Haribhadrasūri's Ṣaddarśanasamuccaya. ¹³⁶ An Ātreyabhāṣya or Ātreyatantra was also known to the Jain author V dideva Sūri and the Nyāya writer Vādīndra. ¹³⁷ A lost Rāvaṇabhāṣya on the Vaiśeṣikasūtras is sometimes ascribed to an Ātreya. ¹³⁸ The Tibetan tradition is acquainted with Ātreya as the author of a work on the proportions of statues (*Pratimā-māna*). ¹³⁹

Much has been written, mainly by Indian authors, on Ātreya's date. Those who regard him as a Vedic sage, assign him to very early ages, ranging from 750-700 B.C. to one millennium or even more than one millennium B.C. ¹⁴⁰

In my opinion, these speculations do not have much sense, since Ātreya (Punarvasu) is clearly a legendary personality.

Agniveśa

Agniveśa figures prominently in the *Carakasaṃhitā* as the foremost pupil of Ātreya Punarvasu. ¹⁴¹ His special position in the *Carakasaṃhitā* is illustrated by the story that, on account of his extraordinary intelligence (buddhiviśeṣa), he was the first to compose a treatise (tantra) based on the teachings of Ātreya (Ca.Sū.1.32). This *Agniveśatantra* was the basis of the *Carakasaṃhitā*.

Another work, ascribed to Agniveśa, the $A\bar{n}jananid\bar{n}na$, is actually a treatise by an unknown author, belonging to the eleventh α twelfth century at the earliest. ¹⁴² A $Nid\bar{a}nasth\bar{a}na$ by Agniveśa is recorded in only one MS catalogue; ¹⁴³ G. Mukhopadhyayal asserts that it is also called $Netr\bar{a}njana$, which would imply that it is identical with the $A\bar{n}jananid\bar{a}na$. One of the BORI MSS of the $A\bar{n}jananid\bar{a}na$ ¹⁴⁵ ends with a colophon stating that the $A\bar{n}jananid\bar{a}na$ from Agniveśa's $Nid\bar{a}nasth\bar{a}na$ is completed, which confirms that the so-called $Nid\bar{a}nasth\bar{a}na$ of Agniveśa cannot be but the $A\bar{n}jananid\bar{a}na$. The same applies to the MS of an $Agniveśanid\bar{a}na$, with commentary. ¹⁴⁶ Some scholars claim that Agniveśa wrote a $N\bar{a}d\bar{n}partk\bar{a}a$. ¹⁴⁷ The ascription of a commentary on the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$ to Agniveśa is undoubtedly wrong. ¹⁴⁸

The only work of Agniveśa to be taken into consideration ¹⁴⁹ is the Agniveśatantra, at least insofar as human medicine is concerned. A related science, claiming Agniveśa as one of its experts, is elephantology (gajaśāstra). His name appears in this context in Godāvaramiśra's Hariharacaturanga, ¹⁵⁰ Nīlakantha's Mātangalīlā, ¹⁵¹ Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda, ¹⁵² and Śivarāmabhūpati's Kalpanāratna. ¹⁵³ A MS of a Hastiśāstra by Agniveśa is referred to by Atrideva. ¹⁵⁴

It may be convenient to begin a discussion of Agniveśa's Agniveśatantra and his contributions to medicine with a list of quotations.

Authors and works quoting Agniveśa or Agniveśya and a work called Āgniveśya, Agniveśatantra or Agniveśasannhitā are: ¹⁵⁵ Ādhamalla, ¹⁵⁶ Anantakumāra, ¹⁵⁷ Āyurvedābdhisāra, ¹⁵⁸ Bhāvamiśra, ¹⁵⁹ the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, Cakrapāṇidatta, ¹⁶⁰ Candrata, ¹⁶¹ Dalhaṇa, ¹⁶² Jejjata, ¹⁶³ Jīvānandavidyāsāgara, ¹⁶⁴ Kāšīrāma, ¹⁶⁵ Kṛṣṇadatta, ¹⁶⁶ Mādhavācārya, ¹⁶⁷ Narahari, ¹⁶⁸ Nīlakaṇṭha, ¹⁶⁹ Niścala, ¹⁷⁰ Rudrabhatta, ¹⁷¹ Sadāṇandadādhīca, ¹⁷² Satyanārāyaṇaśāstrin, ¹⁷³ Śivadāsasena, ¹⁷⁴ Soḍhala, ¹⁷⁵ Śrīdāsapandita, ¹⁷⁶ Śrīkanthadatta, ¹⁷⁷ Todara, ¹⁷⁸ Vāgbhata, ¹⁷⁹ and Vijayaraksita. ¹⁸⁰

Quotations from Agniveśa that form part of the *Carakasaṃhitā* are found in Satyanārāyaṇaśāstrin's *Padārthavijāāna*, ¹⁸¹ Soḍhala's *Gadanigraha*, ¹⁸² and Ṭoḍara's $\bar{A}yurvedasaukhya$. ¹⁸³

The larger part of the quotations, however, are absent from the text of the *Carakasaṃhitā*; they deal with the following subjects: (1) seasonal regimen: Todara II: 3.130 ¹⁸⁴ and 196–198; ¹⁸⁵ (2) epidemic diseases (janapadoddhvaṃsa): Todara II: 3.225 and 226–228; ¹⁸⁶ (3) the means of knowledge concerning diseases: Todara II: 1.130; ¹⁸⁷ (4) the qualities of the three doṣas and substances suitable to alleviate excited doṣas: Toḍara II: 2.63–64; ¹⁸⁸ (5) the threefold movement of the doṣas: Toḍara II: 2.38; ¹⁸⁹ (6) the relationships between the tastes and the mahābhūtas: Toḍara II: 3.66–67; ¹⁹⁰ (7) the firnness (saṃhati) of the body: Toḍara II: 3.378–381ab; ¹⁹¹ (8) the number of hairs (roman) of the human body: Toḍara II: 4.51–53ab; ¹⁹² (9) the

metabolic transformation of the seven bodily elements: Śrīdāsapandita ad A.h.Śa,3. 61cd-62ab; (10a) the formation of sukra in males and females and the duration of this process in persons with a strong, mildly weak, weak and very weak bodily fire: Śridasapandita ad A.h.Śa.3.65cd-66ab and 67cd; (10b) sukra derives from the six tastes (satprabhava) and from four mahābhūtas: Todara II: 4.92-94 and 95-96; (11) the influence of the diet and behaviour of a pregnant woman on the unborn child: Todara II: 4.159–160 and 205–215; 193 (12) embryology: Todara II: 4.188 and 193; 194 (13) aristas: Todara II: 5.55; (14) the classification of remedial measures (ausadha): Todara II: 2.167-170¹⁹⁵ and 171-174; ¹⁹⁶ (15a) any drug and article of diet, procurable by the patient, dependent on his circumstances, should be used by a physician: Todara IX: 1.482–483; (15b) the classification of drugs: Todara II: 3.6–8; ¹⁹⁷ (16) the changes of the properties of medicinal substances during the process of preparation (samskāra): Niścala ad įvara 41–42; 198 (17) snehapāka: Yogaratnasamuccaya 7.126; (18) dravyaguna: Yogaratnasamuccaya 8.171cd-172ab and 356; ¹⁹⁹ (19) the purification of śilājatu: Āyurvedābdhisāra 9372-77, Āyurvedaprakāśa 4.110-115, Bhāvaprakāśa 7³.140-143; (20) the definition of upadrava: Todara II: 1.111-112; ²⁰⁰ (21) the treatment of primary disease (mūlavyādhi) and upadrava: Todara II: 1.113-114: (22) pañcakarınan: Kāśīrāma ad Śārṅgadharasamhitā III.3.1; (23) pralepaka fever: Todara III: 4.795; ²⁰¹ (24) śvasana fever: Todara III: 4.43; ²⁰² (25) dhātupāka in fevers: Todara III: 4.1342-1343; (26) sudation (svedana) in fevers: Kusumāvalī ad Siddhayoga 1.132; (27) the treatment of kāmalā by cauterization and a magical recipe: Basavarājīva 90; (28) dislocations and fractures: Adhamalla ad Śārngadharasamhitā I.7.77cd-79ab; ²⁰³ (29) the signs of death by drowning (jalamrtalaksana): Kusumāvalī ad Siddhayoga 21.5-6, Niścala ad Cakradatta, apasmāra 7-8, Todara V: 10.21, Yogaratnākara 430:²⁰⁴ (30) addiction to alcohol and opium (ahiphena): Todara III: 3.268; (31) the purification of ullipāsāna: Basavarājīya 387; (32) paribhāsās: (a) Cakrapāni ad Ca.Sū.2.17 and Ca.Ci.3.179cd-188ab. Sivadāsa ad Cakradatta, ivara 29:205 (b) Cakrapāni ad Ca.Ci.3.197-200ab, ²⁰⁶ Niścala ad Cakradatta, įvara 64; (c) Cakradatta, ivara 64; 207 (d) Cakrapāni ad Ca.Ci.4.62-72 and 88, Sivadāsa ad Cakradatta, raktapitta 14; (e) Cakrapāni ad Ca.Ci.7.60-64; (f) the definition of usnodaka: Niścala ad Cakradatta, ivara 17, Śivadāsa ad Cakradatta, ivara 17-18, Śivadāsa ad Cakrapāni's Dravyaguna, pānīya 31;208 (g) the definition of mātrā: Dalhana ad Su.Ci.38.3-6, Kusumāvalī ad Siddhayoga 76.3ab, Niścala ad Cakradatta, nirūha 8-10, Śivadāsa ad Cakradatta, nirūha 8-10,²⁰⁹ (h) the description of krta- and akrtayūsa; Niścala ad Cakradatta, vamana 14; (i) rules for the preparation of sadangakasāya, etc.: Todara IX: 1.203-205; (j) the three kinds of dose of a drug: Todara IX: 1.141; (k) rules for the preparation of medicated oils: Todara IX: 1.401, 420; (33) prescriptions: 210 (a) cāngerīghrta: Gadanigraha, gluta 32-35ab; 211 (b) cavyādyaghrta: Gadanigraha, ghṛta 92-94; ²¹² (c) cyavanaprāśāvaleha; ²¹³ (d) keśarapāka: Sadānandadādhīca's Cikitsāratnābharana; 214 (e) mahātiktakaghrta: Gadanigraha, ghrta 162–168; 215 (f) satpalaghrta: Gadanigraha, ghrta 66cd-68ab; (g) śvadamśtrādyaghrta: Gadanigraha, ghṛta 150–153; (h) tiktakaghṛta: Gadanigraha, ghṛta 158–161; ²¹⁶ (i) tryūsanādyaghṛta: Gadanigraha, ghrta 194-197;²¹⁷ (j) vāsādyaghrta: Gadanigraha, ghrta 40cd-43ab; (k) vātāntakataila: Todara III: 4.1271–1278; (l) Bhāvaprakāśa, ciķitsā 1.762; (m)

Cakrapāṇi ad Ca.Ci.7.60-64; (n) Todara III: 3.73; (o) Todara III: 3.98; (p) Todara III: 3.161; (q) Todara III: 3.169-170; (r) Todara III: 3.211; (s) Todara III: 4.801; (t) Todara III: 4.805; (u) Todara III: 4.1297-1299; (v) Todara III: 4.1336-1337; (w) Todara VI: 11.16; (x) Yogaratnasamuccaya 14.254-258; (y) idem, 16.326; (z) idem, 19.246; (aa) idem, 19.267-268; (bb) idem, 20.239-240; (cc) idem, 20.244.

One verse from Agniveśa was incorporated in Cakrapāni's Cikitsāsamgraha. 218

The quotations from Agniveśa and a tantra or saṃhitā attributed to him raise several questions. Those which form part of the extant text of the Carakasaṃhitā cannot unhesitatingly be regarded as belonging to its oldest layer, the Agniveśatantra, on account of the possibility that the Carakasaṃhitā is cited. ²¹⁹ Some quotations are related to verses or prose passages found in the Carakasaṃhitā, but a rather large number are absent from it. This last group is heterogeneous and comprises citations agreeing with views expressed in the Carakasaṃhitā, disagreeing with these views, or dealing with subjects not discussed in the Carakasaṃhitā. Part of the quotations are even decidedly of a rather late date. The technical rules (paribhāṣā) attributed to Agniveśa are most probably from a treatise entirely distinct from the Agniveśatantra that formed the basis of the Carakasamhitā.

Numerous Indian scholars are in favour of accepting the citations ascribed to Agniveśa as coming from the Agniveśatantra, which makes them discuss the question up to which period this treatise was still available in its original form. Manuscripts of the work are no longer extant.

P.C. Rāy is recorded as having asserted in his 'History of Hindu Chemistry' ²²⁰ that the Agniveśatantra was obsolete at the time of composition of Vāgbhaṭa's Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛ-dayasaṃhitā. ²²¹ G. Mukhopadhyaya challenged this assertion, ²²² being convinced of the existence of Agniveśa's original treatise in Vāgbhaṭa's time, because this author mentions the works of Agniveśa and other pupils of Ātreya as the sources of his Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā (A.h.Sū.1.3-5ab). Vāgbhaṭa's reference may, however, be meant to stress that his treatise was in keeping with the tradition and did not introduce new material deviating from the views of the ancient authorities. Agniveśa appears again on the stage at the end of the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā, where he, as the foremost among Ātreya's students, asks the latter about the ultimate causes of disease and suffering, whereupon Ātreya proceeds to give a lecture on the subject (A.h.U.40.59-77). ²²³

The Astāngasamgraha mentions Agniveśa as one among the many ancient authorities whose treatises form the basis of the work (A.s.Sū.1.4–18). He is again referred to as the one who asks Ātreya a question about the application of clysters (A.s.Ka.5.57). Towards the end of the treatise he figures as the first who wrote down the teachings on āyurveda originating from Brahmā (A.s.U.50.202).

These references to Agniveśa in Vāgbhata's works do not warrant the conclusion that the *Agniveśatantra* was still extant in Vāgbhaṭa's times. The only passage in Vāgbhaṭa's works containing a particular view of Agniveśa is found in the chapter on fever of the Nidānasthāna (A.h.Ni.2.61-62a; A.s.Ni.2.63-64a): the crisis of sauntata fever occurs on the seventh, tenth or twelfth day according to Agniveśa, whereas Hārīta declares that the critical days are the fourteenth, eighteenth and twenty-second. ²²⁴ The verse quoted as deriving from Agniveśa is absent from the *Carakasamhitā*, ²²⁵ but

its contents fully agree with verses which do form part of its text (Ca.Ci.3. 53cd-61ab). Probably, Vāgbhaṭa summarized the essence of what he knew to be the opinion expressed in the Carakasaṃhitā; however, one cannot exclude that he was acquainted with a view traditionally ascribed to Agniveśa. This does not mean at all that the evidence collected from Vāgbhaṭa's works proves that the Agniveśatantra was ava lable to him.

G. Mukhopadhyaya's allegation that Agniveśa's work still existed when the old Sauśrutatantra was redacted by Nāgārjuna and became known as the Suśrutasaṃhitā, ²²⁶ rests on very slender evidence. The Suśrutasamhitā does not mention Agniveśa's name; it only refers to the treatises of the six kāyacikitsā specialists ²²⁷ and several other groups of experts, used in the composition of the Uttaratantra (Su.U.1.4cd-8ab); this is a statement of the same type as that found at the beginning of Vāgbhaṭa's works.

The claim of many Indian authors that the Agnivesatantra remained accessible for many centuries, up to the times of Cakrapāṇidatta, Vijayarakṣita, Śrikaṇṭhadatta and Śivadāsasena, 228 is not supported by solid evidence; 229 it rests on the shaky balis of the uncritical acceptance of the genuineness of the quotations and on the conviction that the occurrence of these quotations means that MSS containing the complete text were still extant. Acknowledgment of the additional quotations found in Toçlara's Āyurvedasaukhya and Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya, neglected by the majority of Indian authors or unknown to them, would oblige them to raise the lir it of the period in which the Agnivesatantra could be consulted. It would, moreover, be hard to explain that in the period of compilation of Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya a large body of material from the Agnivesatantra could be collected that was overlooked by the commentators on the classical medical treaties.

The majority of the citations referred to by these authors in order to substantiate their claims are of the nature of paribhāṣās; these technical rules belong to a sī ecial group of quotations which are probably from an Agniveśasaṃhitā, a work that impresses as entirely different from the Agniveśatantra and of a later date. Paribhāṣās do not form part of the Carakasaṃhitā and are usually found in the commentarial literature or specialized works like the Bheṣājakalpa, attributed to Bharadvāja.

As I have already mentioned, the quotations attributed to Agniveśa belong to several groups. In my opinion it is impossible to decide whether or not some may be from the old Agniveśatantra, because of the absence of reliable criteria. No one knows what the Agniveśatantra looked like, in spite of assertions to the contrary. ²³⁰ P.V. Sharm: a has advanced the hypothesis that the Agniveśatantra was a work in sūtra style, resembling the Arthaśāstra; Caraka expanded the text, rewrote the descriptions of the assembles of sages in the form of dialogues and added the summaries at the end of each chapt ar. ²³¹ The same author has tried to isolate elements of the Carakasamhitā that in his view belong to its oldest layer, i.e., the Agniveśatantra. ²³²

The quotations do not support the hypothesis that Agniveśa's work mainly consisted of sūtras; by far the larger part of the citations are in verse. ²³³

Peculiarities found in quotations from Agnivesa which throw doubt on the r authenticity or point to a date later than Drdhabala's completion of the Carakasanhitā are: the use of the term ekarūpa yaksman for an epideniic disease; ²³⁴ the absence of

yukti as a means of knowledge; ²³⁵ the number of hairs of the human body; ²³⁶ the presence of two different quotations on the same subject; ²³⁷ a quotation in verse, corresponding to a passage in prose of the *Carakasaṃhitā*; ²³⁸ the description of pralepaka fever; ²³⁹ the description of śvasana fever; ²⁴⁰ the description of the symptoms of death by drowning; ²⁴¹ the description of addiction to alcohol and opium; ²⁴² the description of the purification of ullipāsāna. ²⁴³

A very remarkable reference to Agniveśa, called Hutāśa in this case, occurs in the chapter on bhagna (44) of the Mādhavanidāna. The first verse of this chapter looks like a quotation in which an unnamed authority answers a question put by Agniveśa. The verse distinguishes two kinds of bhagna: kāṇḍabhagna (a bone fracture) and sandhibhagna (dislocation of a joint); the latter is of six varieties. Verses two to seven of the same chapter, probably from the same source as verse one, 244 enumerate the twelve types of fractures. 245

The presence of Agniveśa's name in a verse on this subject is striking, on account of the fact that fractures and dislocations are not discussed in the Carakasaṃhitā. The assumption that the verses referred to are from the old Agniveśatantra²⁴⁶ would be tantamount to accepting that it essentially differed from the Carakasaṃhitā in also dealing with surgery.

The identity of the Agniveśa mentioned in the *Carakasamhitā* is a much discussed subject. I agree with J. Filliozat²⁴⁷ in regarding him as a mythic figure, not as a historic personality. Most Indian scholars disagree with this view and are inclined to identify him with a person of the same name figuring in ancient Indian texts. ²⁴⁸ Several teachers called Agniveśya are already referred to in Vedic literature, ²⁴⁹ which indicates that Agniveśa is a name going back to early times.

One of the schools of the Black Yajurveda is called after Agniveśya; ²⁵⁰ this school (śākhā) is mentioned in the *Taittirī yaprātiśākhya* and the commentary on this work by Māhiṣeya. ²⁵¹

Agniveśa's name is found in the *Gaṇapātha* belonging to Pāṇini's *Astādhyāyī*. ²⁵² The *Mahābhārata* contains stories about a divine weapon, the āgneyāstra, given by Bṛhaspati to Bharadvāja, who transmitted it to Agniveśya; Agniveśya gave it in his turn to Droṇa, ²⁵³ who also received the dhanurveda from him. ²⁵⁴ Agastya is said to have been Agniveśya's teacher in the art of archery (dhanurveda). ²⁵⁵ Another story tells that the coat of mail (varman), in which Indra fought Vṛtra, was handed over to Angiras, who gave it to his son Bṛhaspati, from whom it came to Agniveśya and finally to Droṇa. ²⁵⁶ These stories diverge in presenting Agniveśya as a pupil of Agastya, Bharadvā ia and Bṛhaspati. ²⁵⁷

Purāṇas mentioning Agniveśa or Agniveśya are the Bhāgavata-, Brahmāṇḍa-, Matsya- and Vāyupurāṇa. ²⁵⁸ The Bhāgavatapurāṇa describes Agniveśa as an incarnation of Agni and the son of Devadatta; he became famous as the great sage Kanīna Jatūkarṇa. ²⁵⁹

Buddhist literature is also acquainted with Agnives(y)a; 260 his name is found in the *Divyāvadāna* 261 and the *Majjhimanikāya*. 262 Agnivaisyāyana is a name occurring in the *Avadānasataka*. 263

Persons called Aggivessana are moreover known from the history of the Ajīvi-

kas.²⁶⁴ Aggivesāyaņa is a name found in Ardhamāgadhī literature; the Jaina canonical text *Vyākhyāprajñapti* or *Bhagavatīsūtra* tells about a visit to Makkhali Gosāla, the founder of the Ājīvikas, by six wandering ascetic philosophers, one of whom was a certain Aggivesāyana.²⁶⁵

The Tibetan medical tradition is acqainted with Agnivésa as Me-bźin hjug; ²⁶⁶ he is credited with a medical work belonging to the collection known as Rća-ra-ka sde-brgyad. ²⁶⁷

Al-Bīrūnī transmits a tradition regarding Caraka as an incarnation of Agniveśa. ²⁶⁸
The arguments adduced by Indian scholars in support of the thesis that the Agniveśa of the Carakasanhitā is the same as the Agniveśa or Agniveśya mentioned in the sources referred to do not carry conviction because a coherent picture does not emerge from the data available. The guru-śiṣya relationship between Ātreya Punarvasu and Agniveśa, characteristic of the Carakasanhitā, is not found in non-medical sources; many of the latter describe Agniveśa as a pupil of Bharadvāja, whose connection with Agniveśa is indirect in the Carakasanhitā, where Ātreya is instructed by him. ²⁶⁹

Indian authors base their identification of the Agniveśa of the *Gaṇapātha* with the author of the *Agniveśatantra* on the occurrence, next to each other, of the names of Agniveśa, Parāśara and Jatūkarṇa, three names associated with the medical science; ²⁷⁰ this argument is unconvincing because Agniveśa on the one hand, Parāśara and Jatūkarṇa on the other, do not form part of one and the same gaṇa; ²⁷¹ moreover, all three are names of ancient sages associated with many aspects of Indian culture and not with medicine only.

Indian scholars who suppose the Agniveśa of the Carakasaṃhitā to be identical with the Agniveśa or Agniveśya of Vedic literature, the Gaṇapāṭha, the Mahābhārata, etc., are inclined to place him in a period shortly preceding that of Pāṇini, in the age of the early Upanisads, or the period of the Satapathabrāhmana.

An argument often adduced in support of the thesis of Agniveśa's anteriority to Pāṇini is the occurrence of his name in the Gaṇapāṭha, in combination with the fact that the city of Takṣaśilā, known to Pāṇini,²⁷² is nowhere mentioned in the Carakasaṛṇhitā.²⁷³ This argument strains the evidence in identifying an unspecified Agniveśa with the pupil of Ātreya and in supposing that the presence or absence of geographical names in the Carakasaṛṇhitā reflects the period of composition of the Agniveśatantra. The authors employing this type of reasoning often compare the relationship between the Agniveśatantra and the Carakasaṃhitā with that between Pāṇini's Astādhyāyī and the Mahābhāsya, ²⁷⁴ a comparison that obviously falls short.

Another piece of evidence put forward as indicating an early date of the oldest layer of the Carakasaṃhitā, associated with Agniveśa, is the absence of the seven-day week of the solar calendar and the names of the days of the week called after their presiding planets. A number of Indian authors assume that the seven-day week was introduced about one thousand years before the beginning of the Śaka era (A.D. 78); ²⁷⁵ its absence would thus corroborate that the Agniveśatantra dates from about 1.000 B.C. Actually, the solar calendar, imported with Western astronomy, was known from Gupta times onwards and did not oust the old luni-solar calendar, which invalidates the argument. ²⁷⁶

Evidence taken from the contents of the Carakasamhitā and considered by Indian

scholars to prove the antiquity of the Agniveśatantra is discussed in the chapter on the Carakasamhitā.

Most Indian scholars conclude that Agniveśa, the author of the *Agniveśatantra*, belongs to Upaniṣadic times or the period of the *Śatapathabrāhmaṇa* and lived about 1. 000 B.C.^{277}

P. Cordier²⁷⁸ supposed Agnivesa to have been a Buddhist who lived six centuries before Caraka.

Drdhabala

Dṛḍhabala²⁷⁹ is the author who completed the Carakasaṃhitā, as attested by himself. He states in the last chapter of the Cikitsāsthāna (Ci.30.289–290): "Since seventeen chapters, and also those of the Kalpa and Siddhi (sections), of Agniveśa's tantra as revised by Caraka, are not available, Dṛḍhabala, the son of Kapilabala, wrote these missing portions, in order to truthfully complete this important treatise"; in the last chapter of the Siddhisthāna (Si.12.36cd-40ab) he expresses himself in the following words: "A redactor (saṃskartar) enlarges what is concisely stated and abridges prolixities, making an old treatise thus up-to-date again; in that way, this excellent treatise, full of truth, redacted by the very learned Caraka, but seen to be incomplete by one-third (tribhāgena), was fully restored, after propitiating Śaṃkara, the lord of living beings, by Dṛḍhabala, born in Pañcanadapura; he gleaned a mass of relevant information (viśeṣoñchaśiloccaya) from many books, filling with it seventeen chapters on treatment (ausadhādhyāya), the Kalpa(sthāna) and the Siddhi(sthāna)".

Drdhabala's own words do not specify which chapters of the Cikitsāsthāna were available to him and which chapters were missing from Caraka's text. The obvious assumption that the last seventeen chapters are meant is only justifiable if all the evidence that can be collected agrees. A preliminary question, however, presents itself first: what is the correct order of the chapters of the Cikitsāsthāna. 280 Two different arrangements are known from MSS and editions. The most current order, adopted first by N.N. Sengupta and B.C. Sengupta,²⁸¹ followed by Gangadhara, has: (1) rasayana, (2) vājīkarana, (3) įvara, (4) raktapitta, (5) gulma, (6) prameha, (7) kustha, (8) rājayaksman, (9) unmāda, (10) apasmāra, (11) ksataksīna, (12) śvayathu, (13) udara, (14) arśas, (15) grahanī, (16) pānduroga, (17) hikkā and śvāsa, (18) kāsa, (19) atīsāra, (20) chardi, (21) visarpa, (22) trsnā, (23) visa, (24) madātyaya, (25) dvivranīya, (26) trimarmīya, (27) ūrustambha, (28) vātavyādhi, (29) vātaśonita, (30) yomvyāpad. 282 The second arrangement, adopted by Jīvānanda Vidvāsāgara, ²⁸³ differs in the order of chapters nine to twenty-five: (9) arsas, (10) atīsāra, (11) visarpa, (12) madātyaya, (13) dvivranīya, (14) unmāda, (15) apasmāra, (16) ksataksīna, (17) śvayathu, (18) udara, (19) grahanī, (20) pānduroga, (21) hikkā and śvāsa, (22) kāsa, (23) chardi, (24) trsnā, (25) visa. Opinions differ concerning the answer to the question which arrangement should be regarded as the original one. The views expressed are related to the problem which chapters are to be ascribed to Drdhabala.

Various types of evidence can contribute to the settlement of this question. ²⁸⁴ The two serial orders known agree with regard to the eight initial and the five concluding

chapters. The former are uniformly seen as belonging to the *Carakasaṃhitā* before its revision and completion by Dṛḍhabala, which is in conformity with the chapter colophons and Cakrapāṇidatta's comments on Ca.Ci.30.289–290.²⁸⁵ The five concluding chapters are uniformly attributed to Dṛḍhabala, in agreement again with the colophons and Cakrapāṇidatta's remarks. Quotations from Dṛḍhabala confirm that these chapters form part of his contributions. ²⁸⁶

The authorship of chapters nine to twenty-five is in need of clarification.

Chapters nine to twelve²⁸⁷ were written by Drdhabala according to the colophons and Cakrapāṇi's remarks. The same applies to chapter thirteen (udara). 288 Chapter fourteen (arsas) derives from Caraka, as indicated in the colophon and by Cakrapāni. Chapter fifteen (grahanī) is by Drdhabala, as demonstrated by the colophon, Cakrapāni's remarks, and quotations by Arunadatta and Śrīdāsapandita. Chapters sixteen (pānduroga) and seventeen (hikkā and śvāsa) are also by Drdhabala, as attested by the colophons, Cakrapāni, and the quotations found in the commentaries of Vijavaraksita and Vācaspati. The authorship of chapter eighteen (kāsa), attributed to Drdhabala in the colophon and by Cakrapāni, is not confirmed by one or more quotations. ²⁸⁹ Chapter mineteen (atīsāra) is by Caraka, as pointed out in the colophon and the commentaries of Cakrapāṇi and Indu.²⁹⁰ Chapter twenty (chardi) is by Dṛḍhabala according to the colophon and Cakrapāni. Chapter twenty-one (visarpa) is by Caraka on the basis of the same evidence. Chapter twenty-two (trsna) is ascribed to Drdhabala in the colophon, as well as by Cakrapāni, Niścala, Vācaspati and Vijayaraksita. Chapter twenty-three (visa) is by Drdhabala according to Cakrapāni, Vācaspati and Vijayaraksita, but the colophon fails to mention his name. Chapter twenty-four (madatyaya) is attributed to Caraka in the colophon and by Cakrapāni.²⁹¹ The authorship of chapter twenty-five (dvivranīya) is problematic; the colophon mentions Drdhabala, whereas Jejiata and Cakrapāni regard it as deriving from Caraka.

The above data permit to conclude with certainty that Dṛḍhabala's contributions to the Cikitsāsthāna consist of chapters nine to thirteen, fifteen to eighteen, twenty, twenty-two, and twenty-six to thirty, which makes a total of sixteen chapters. The seventeenth chapter is either twenty-three (viṣa), ascribed to Dṛḍhabala by Cakrapāṇi and other commentators, or twenty-five (dvivraṇīya), written by Dṛḍhabala according to the c●lophon. The relative weight of the evidence points to chapter twenty-three as a contribution of Dṛḍhabala, because the chapter colophons, being later additions, cannot be relied upon; ²⁹² this is confirmed by Jejjata, who ascribes chapter twenty-five unhesitatingly to the ācārya, i.e., Caraka.²⁹³

The Gulabkunverba team agrees in opting for chapter twenty-three on the basis of Vijayarakṣita's quotation from it, and on account of Jejjaṭa's mention of Caraka as the author of chapter twenty-five; the chapter colophons are disregarded. ²⁹⁴ Birajācaraṇ Sengupta, as quoted by G. Mukhopadhyaya, ²⁹⁵ accepts Jīvānanda's views, with one exception: the dvivraṇīya chapter is by Dṛḍhabala, the udara chapter by Caraka. ²⁹⁶ The majority of other scholars subscribe to the inferences derived from the evidence. ²⁹⁷

The conclusions reached with regard to the question which chapters of the Cikitsāsthāna were added by Dṛḍhabala does not solve the problem of the correct order of the chapters of that section. The usual arrangement presents a picture in which five of Caraka's chapters appear, singly or in a cluster, at various places among those from Dṛḍhabala's pen, while Jīvānanda's order groups them together. Most scholars regard Jīvānanda's arrangement as a secondary development. ²⁹⁸ This view is supported by the table of contents in chapter thirty of the Sūtrasthāna, ²⁹⁹ the order of the chapters in the Nidānasthāna, ³⁰⁰ and the commentaries of Jejiata and Cakrapānidatta. ³⁰¹

Many questions may be raised concerning Drdhabala's contributions to the Carakasamhitā. Nothing is known with certainty about the state of Caraka's work in Drdhabala's times. The latter's remarks convey the impression that part of Caraka's revision of the Agnives at antra had got lost in the course of the ages. 302 The view that Caraka. for some reason, did not complete his work, as supposed by some scholars, 303 is less probable. Drdhabala himself declares (Ci.30.289-290) that seventeen chapters of the Cikitsāsthāna, and the whole of the Kalpa- and Siddhisthāna of Caraka's revision of Agnivesa's work were not available to him (nāsādyante). 304 This pronouncement implies that he was acquainted with the original extent of the work and that he took it for granted that it was not left unfinished by Caraka. The colophons of the chapters we owe to Drdhabala confirm this view. Some statements found in chapters written by Caraka may be seen as supporting evidence, albeit that one cannot exclude the possibility of Drdhabala having made these additions; the Kalpasthana, for instance, is referred to twice (Sū.4.4; 305 Ci.21.53), the Siddhisthana is mentioned several times, 306 The table of contents in the last chapter of the Sūtrasthāna may, however, well be due to Drdhabala.307

Most scholars are agreed that Dṛḍhabala reconstructed the extant part of the Carakasaṇihitā and made additions to its text, since he acknowledges this fact himself. The identification of passages that may not have formed part of Caraka's treatise is beset with difficulties. 308 Dṛḍhabala himself does not inform us of his sources, but Cakrapāṇidatta says that the 'many treatises', referred to by Dṛḍhabala, consisted of the works of Suśruta, Videha and other authors. 309 Verses found in both Caraka- and Suśrutasamhitā are for that reason by some attributed to Dṛḍhabala. 310

A number of scholars, in particular P. Cordier, A.F.R. Hoernle and P.V. Sharma, have tried to identify passages in Caraka's parts of the Carakasanhitā that may be additions of Drdhabala. Verses and passages in prose noticed as probably deriving from Drdhabala are the following: some verses towards the end of Sū.11; 311 the prose portions of Sū.12; 312 the list of one hundred and fifty-two most excellent (agrya) remedial measures, medicinal substances, etc., of Sū.25;313 the verses on the properties of the water of several rivers (Sū.27.209-212);³¹⁴ the already mentioned table of contents of Sū.30;³¹⁵ parts of the Nidāna chapter on gulma (Ni.3);³¹⁶ some passages of the chapter on epidemics of the Vimānasthāna; 317 the presence of Dhanvantari among a series of gods in the last chapter of the Vimānasthāna (Vi.8.11);³¹⁸ the reference to the extraction of a dead foetus by a surgeon (salvahartar) (\$\bar{a}.8.31); 319 the list of auspicious objects of the last chapter of the Indriyasthana; 320 the recommendation to fever patients to recite the thousand names of Visnu (sahasranāmastotra);³²¹ part of the chapter on the treatment of gulma (Ci.5);³²² the reference to the rise of Agastya in the sky, in connection with the diminution of poisonous elements in rain water (Ci.23.7cd-8): 323 the occurrence of the names of Visnu, Krsna and Vasudeva (Ci.23.91-93); 324 the presence of elements derived from Tantrism; ³²⁵ the verses in praise of alcoholic drinks (Ci.24.3–20). ³²⁶ Passages referring to surgery and the dhanvantarīyāḥ are by some regarded as interpolations of Drdhabala. ³²⁷

Some peculiarities found in Drdhabala's chapters of the Carakasanhitā which point to him as an author who lived in the Gupta age are, according to P.V. Sharma: passages reminiscent of treatises on kāmaśāstra (Ci.30.135 and 164); ³²⁸ the list of peoples of the last chapter of the Cikitsāsthāna (Ci.30.315–319); ³²⁹ the prose style of a passage in chapter one of the Kalpasthāna (Ka.1.8), reminiscent of the prose works of Subandhu and Bāna. ³³⁰

P.V. Sharma inclines to the view that Dṛḍhabala's list of tantrayuktis (Si.12.41–45ab) has been influenced by the treatment of this subject in the Kauṭilīya Arthaśā-stra ³³¹

P.V. Sharma quotes a list, comprising one hundred and seventy-two items, of medicinal plant names, found in Dṛḍhabala's chapters of the *Carakasaṛṇḥitā*, and absent from those attributed to Caraka himself.³³²

Names of plants mentioned only in Drdhabala's chapters of the Carakasamhitā are, according to this list: ādityavallī (Ci.26.268),³³³ asitasurasa (Ci.18.117),³³⁴ aśvakhuraka (Ci.23.245), aśvāvarohikā (Si.10.37), 335 atiguhā (Ci.23.213), 336 bāhlīka (Ci.23.102; 30.91),³³⁷ bahuphenarasā (Ka.11.3),³³⁸ balāhaka (Ci.23.11),³³⁹ bandhujīva (Ci.23.181 and 243), 340 bhrigarāja (Ci.18.117; 26.264; Ka.1.25), 341 bījaka (Ci.16.106), 342 bodhivrksa (Ci.29.158), 343 brhatpattra (Ka.9.1), 344 carmakasā (Ci. 23.66),³⁴⁵ carmasāhvā (Ka.12.3),³⁴⁶ cavikā (Ci.18.158; 26.167; 28.168; Si.4.14),³⁴⁷ cuccū (Ci.23.225), 348 dandairaka (Ci.26.51; Ka.1.25), 349 devatādaka (Ka.2.3), 350 ekāsthīlā (Si.10.23), 351 gandhaphalā (Ci.23.57), 352 garāgarī (Ka.2.3; Si.11.12), 353 gaurī (Si.4.21), 354 girikarnikā (Ci.23.195), 355 girimallikā (Ka.5.4), 356 gudā (Ka.10.8), 357 hālāhala (Ci.23.13), 358 hintāla (Ka.1.8), 359 jālamālinī (Ci.23.206), 360 kālakūta (Ci.23. 11),³⁶¹ karahāta (Ci.26.15),³⁶² karkata (Ci.23.11),³⁶³ karkotakī (Ka.4.3),³⁶⁴ karnikāra (Ka.8.3),³⁶⁵ kāsamarda(ka) (Ci.17.99; 18.117, 161, 163; 30.52; Ka.1.25; 4.17),³⁶⁶ kothaphala (Si.11.12), 367 kothaphalā (Ka.4.3), kraunca (Ci.23.11), 368 krsnacitraka (Ci.26.272), 369 kṛṣṇāguru (Ci.26.270), 370 kṛṣṇapiṇdīta (Ci.26.272), 371 kṛṣṇaśairevaka (Ci.26.268), 372 krsnaśana (Ci.26.269), 373 ksveda (Ka.6.3, 10, 12), 374 kuńkuma (Ci.23.54, etc.),³⁷⁵ kunduru(ka) (Ci.26.64; 28.153),³⁷⁶ kuśapuspaka (Ci.23.12),³⁷⁷ kutaranā (Ka.7.4), 378 lambā (Ci.26.153; Ka.3.3), 379 mahājālinī (Ka.3.17; 4.3), 380 marubaka (Ka.1.23), 381 meghaka (Ci.23.12), 382 mrdangaphala (Ka.6.3), 383 muskaka (Ci.15.189; 26.192, 193), 384 nāgakeśara (Ci.28.154), 385 nalikā (Ci.28.152), 386 nandā (Ka.10.8), ³⁸⁷ navamālikā (Ci.26.184), ³⁸⁸ nistrimsapattraka (Ka.10.8), ³⁸⁹ padmacārati (Ci.23.55),³⁹⁰ pārāvatapadī (Ka.1.23),³⁹¹ two types of pāthā (Ci.18.39),³⁹² pattanga (Ci.26.210), ³⁹³ piṇḍaphalā (Ka.3.3), ³⁹⁴ pītadāru (Si.9.8; 10.23), ³⁹⁵ poṭa (Ka.1.25), ³⁹⁶ pragraha (Ka.8.3; Si.10.30; 11.24),³⁹⁷ prasāranī (Ci.28.166),³⁹⁸ pratyakparnī (Ka.11. 14), ³⁹⁹ rājakośātakī (Ka.4.3), ⁴⁰⁰ rakṣoghna (Ci.26.15), ⁴⁰¹ rakṣoghnī (Ci.23.79), raktacandana (Ci.30.92), ⁴⁰² śābaraka(lodhra) (Ci.15.158), ⁴⁰³ sadāpuṣpī (Ka.1.14), ⁴⁰⁴ sahā (Ci.28.162), 405 sahacara (Ci.26.264, etc.), 406 sahakāra (Ka.7.31), 407 śakra (Ka.5. 4), 408 śambarī (Ka.12.3, additional verse), 409 sarvānubhūti (Ka.7.4), 410 śāvaraka and . sāvaraka (Ci.23.55; 26.233). 411 śelu (Ci.23.187, 201, 204), 412 siddhārtha(ka) (Ci.9.69;

15, 135; Si.3.67; 7.25), ⁴¹³ śitivāraka (Ci.26.56, 60), ⁴¹⁴ śrīnivāsaka (Ci.28.153), ⁴¹⁵ śuklasurasa (Ci.23.101), ⁴¹⁶ sutaśrenī (Ka.12.3, additional verse), ⁴¹⁷ svarņayūthikā (Si.10.31), ⁴¹⁸ śvasana (Ka.1.27), ⁴¹⁹ śvetabhaṇḍa (Ci.10.245), śvetabhaṇḍī (Ci.23. 210), ⁴²⁰ śvetamarica (Ci.26.245, 246), ⁴²¹ śvetavacā (Ci.23.70; Si.3.62), ⁴²² tālamūlī (Ci.18.75), ⁴²³ tiktalā (Ka.11.3), ⁴²⁴ tirīṭaka (Ka.9.3), ⁴²⁵ trigandhaka (Ci.16.89), ⁴²⁶ tribhaṇḍī (Ka.7.4), ⁴²⁷ truṭi (Ci.26.55, 64, 87), ⁴²⁸ tuṇṭuka (Ci.23.70), ⁴²⁹ turuṣka (Ci.28. 153), ⁴³⁰ uccaṭā (Si.12.19), ⁴³¹ udumbaraparṇī (Ka.12.3), ⁴³² vallīphala (Ci.20.22), ⁴³³ vardhamāṇa(ka) (Ci.17.80; Si.10.19), ⁴³⁴ vatsanābha (Ci.23.11), ⁴³⁵ veṇī (Ka.2.3), ⁴³⁶ vitunnaka (Ci.18.176; 29.94), ⁴³⁷ yavatiktā (Ka.11.3). ⁴³⁸

Plants to be removed from the list are: amṛtaphala (Ci.7.147), asitā, 439 aśvakarṇaka (Sū.4.17, etc.), bālekṣu, 440 bhṛṇga (Ci.24.181), cañcu (Ci.19.32), dīrghaśūka (Sū.27.8), ervāruka (Sū.27.110, 111), gṛājanaka (Sū.27.174, etc.), kākāhvā (Ci.21.90), kaṇā, 441 kāṇtā, 442 kardama, 443 karkāruka (Ci.19.32), karkaṭaka (Ci.14.90), karpūra (Sū.5.77), kāśmarī (Sū.2.11; 4.16, 17, etc.: kāśmarya), kharāśvā (Sū.23.15: kharāhvā), kośātaka (Ci.7.119, etc.: kośātakī), kṛṣṇapaṇāṣa, 444 kṛṣṇaṭila, 445 kuraṇṭaka (Ci.21.89), lavaṅga (Sū.5.77), mahāpattra (Ci.14.124), pāṭali (Ci.11.62, etc.), phalī (Ci.14.189, etc.: phalinī), phenilā (Ci.24.161), piṇḍi (Ci.14.10), pratyakpuṣpā (Sū.1.82, 85, etc.), śāla (Sū.4.18, etc.) śāliparṇī (Sū.2.11, 20; 4.13, 16, etc.: śālaparṇī), śamyāka (Ci.3.144, etc.: śampāka), sāṭalā (Sū.1.77, etc.: saptalā), sindhuvārikā (Sū.3.28, etc.: sindhuvāra), śītapākya (Ci.3.258), sūryaparṇī (Ci.11.43, etc.: śūrpaparṇī), śvetaśāli (Ci.21.80 and 113), tiṇṭikera (Ci.14.10), wijātaka (Ci.24.128), utkuñcikā, 446 vaṃśalekhana or -locana (Ci.18.73; 23.71), 447 varī (Ci.19.62), vijayā (Ci.25.47), vṛṣakarṇikā (Sū.4.11: vṛṣaparṇikā), vyāghrī (Sū.5.65).

A much shorter list, compiled by P.V. Sharma himself, consists of the following twenty-fourplant names: bāhlīka, bhṛṅgarāja, būjaka, bodhivṛkṣa, cavikā, dvimadhūka, karpūra, kṛṣṇacitraka, lavaṅga, nāgakeśara, phenilā, prasāraṇī, raktacandana, sahakāra, śrīnivāsaka, śvetamarica, śvetavacā, tālamūlī, trijātaka, ṭuṇṭuka, turuṣka, uccaṭā, vatsanābha, and yavatiktā. 448

These lists are not exhaustive. The remaining plant names occurring in Drdhabala's chapters only are: aksipīda(ka) (Ci.23.215, 216; Ka.11.3), 449 amaradāru (Ci.12.43, 53; 13.147; Si.3.58, 67), 450 ambuda (Si.3.63), 451 amburuha (Ci.22.37), 452 aṃśumatī (Ci.28.96; 29.80), 453 annapākin (Si.12.19), 454 apetarāksasī (Ci.10.39), 455 bahuphenarasā (Ka.11.3), 456 buka (Ci.30.82), 457 cāratī (Ci.9.45), 458 ga japippalī (Ci. 12.41; Ka.7.15), 459 gaurāmalaka (Ci.18.184), ghana (Ci.15.165; 16.87; 26.190, 198, 208; Si.3.37; 8.19), 460 granthi(ka) (Ci.16.73; 23.52; 27.45), 461 guhā (Ci.23.213), 462 hayagandhā (Ci.28.173), 463 hemadugdhā (Ka.12.23), 464 hingupattrikā (Ci.9.66), 465 indrāyudha (Ci.23.12), 466 jātikośa (Ci.26.210; 28.152), 467 jayā (Ci.9.45), 468 kāñcaraksīrī (Ci.13.133), 469 kapikacchū (Ci.9.80; 11.62; 24.125, 160), 470 karavīraka (Ci.23.11),⁴⁷¹ karkatāhvayā (Ka.7.18), karkatākhya (Ci.17.94), karkatākhyā (Ci. 18.118, 173, 177; 28.160; Si.4.10), 472 katabhī (Ci.9.70; 10.33; 15.188; 23.66, 79, 187, 213, 245), 473 katambharā (Ci.9.47), 474 katutumba (Si.11.6), 475 kauntī (Ci.9.35; 12.65; 23.55; Si.8.13), 476 kāyasthā (Ci.9.57; 10.46, 48; 17.141; 26.83), 477 kusthaghna (Ci.23.54), 478 kūtaranā (Ka.7.4), 479 madhuyastī (Ci.23.196; 29.91), madhuyastikā (Ci. 16.100; 29.107), 480 mahāpurusadantā (Ci.9.46), 481 markata (Ci.23.13), 482 markatī (Ci.9.45),⁴⁸⁵ mayūraka (Ci.12.23; 23.57),⁴⁸⁴ mustaka (Ci.23.11),⁴⁸⁵ nīlī (Ci.18.87; 26.271; Ka.7.34),⁴⁸⁶ nyagrodhī(Ka.12.3),⁴⁸⁷ pālaka (Ci.23.12),⁴⁸⁸ palāšā (Si.3.38, 65),⁴⁸⁹ phalāmla (Ci.11.80),⁴⁹⁰ pītadru (Ci.10.43; 12.25; 17.110; 26.97; Si.4.29),⁴⁹¹ pṛthakparņī (Ci.11.44; 18.77),⁴⁹² pullāsa (Ci.30.82),⁴⁹³ puṇḍarīka (Ci.23.12),⁴⁹⁴ pūtanākešī (Ci.9.45; 10.34, 39),⁴⁹⁵ pūtīkakarañja (Ci.26.23),⁴⁹⁶ raktamūlī (Si.10.31),⁴⁹⁷ raṇḍā (Ka.12.4),⁴⁹⁸ rasa (Ci.28.152),⁴⁹⁹ samkoca (Ci.23.13),⁵⁰⁰ sitagiri (Ci.23.95),⁵⁰¹ śṛṅgīviṣa (Ci.23.13),⁵⁰² sūkarī (Ci.9.46),⁵⁶³ taila (Ci.23.12),⁵⁰⁴ trāyantī (Ci.12.53; Ka.7.59; Si.3.36), trāyantikā (Ci.29.58; Si.3.62),⁵⁰⁵ tridašāhva (Ci.28.162),⁵⁰⁶ tumbī (Ci.26.15; Ka.3.3, 11, 15, 19),⁵⁰⁷ tuvara (Ci.30.124),⁵⁰⁸ tvakkṣīrī (Ci.11.17, 20, 54, 62; 15.164; 16.89; 18.88, 104, 146, 176; 29.64, 152; Si.12.19),⁵⁰⁹ ugragandhā (Ci.26.22),⁵¹⁰ vāṃṣī (Ci.11.33, 58; 18.89),⁵¹¹ vāyasapīluka (Ci.23.217),⁵¹² vāyasī (Ci.12.63; 18.81; 23.53; 27.27).⁵¹³

The data collected so far does not give us a clear picture of Dṛḍhabala's methods in completing and revising the extant parts of the Carakasaṃhitā. We cannot even be sure that the MSS and editions faithfully reproduce his text. Aruṇadatta and Śrīdāsapaṇḍita quote fourteen verses of Dṛḍhabala, the first one of which only is found in our text of the Carakasaṃhitā, 514 which may be interpreted as pointing to either an originally longer version or later additions.

Generally, the chapters written by Drehabala are undistinguishable from those we owe to Caraka, as to their style and language, 515 which explains the uncertainties of earlier scholars with regard to the question which chapters can safely be ascribed to the one or the other author. The studies so far available on peculiarities of Drehabala's contributions are largely bound up with investigations into his chronological position. Less attention has been paid to disagreements between views expressed by Caraka and Drehabala. One such contradiction has already been noticed by Cakrapāṇidatta, and, in his wake, Śivadāsasena. These commentators, examining statements concerning the number of days during which fatty substances should be administered, prior to sudation, discovered that Caraka's and Drehabala's views conflict with each other. 516 The difference, explained away by Cakrapāṇi and Śivadāsa, may find its origin in Suśruta's influence on Drehabala. 517

Inconsistencies within Caraka's parts of the Carakasaṃhitā may pointto interpolations by Dṛḍhabala. An example, discovered by A.F.R. Hoernle, 518 is the description of raktagulma in chapter five of the Cikitsāsthāna, while this disorder is absent from chapter three of the Nidānasthāna. The addition of raktagulma may be accounted for by borrowing from a surgical treatise. 519

The reference to Kṛṣṇātreya at the end of chapter eleven of the Sūtrasthāna, attributed to Ātreya at its beginning, is by some regarded as due to Dṛḍhabala's pen. ⁵²⁰ The same chapter exhibits some more incongruities that are suggestive of the activity of a reviser. ⁵²¹

The question has now to be asked where Drdhabala gleaned his information from. His own statement about his sources is vague (Si. 12.36cd-40ab). Cakrapāṇidatta identifies them as the treatises of Suśruta, Videha and others, which cannot be regarded as a satisfactory answer. Cakrapāṇi obviously refers to Suśruta as a representative of śalya and to Videha as a śālākya specialist, but omits to name authors on kāyacikitsā who

must have been among Drdhabala's sources for his chapters on internal medicine.

A preliminary problem, namely whether or not Drdhabala could still dispose of fragments of largely lost parts of Caraka's treatise, is unsolvable. He could, however, avail himself of the original version of the table of contents in the last chapter of the Sūtrasthāna, provided that such a table was already present there. Another source may have been the old version of the Bhelasaṛṇḥitā, a work belonging to the school of Ātreya and showing many similarities with the Carakasamhitā. 522

Cakrapāṇi's reference to Suśruta raises the question whether this remark is trustworthy, and, if so, which version of the Suśrutasaṃhitā was known to Dṛḍhabala, the original text or the revised one. P.V.Sharma inclines to the view that Dṛḍhabala made use of the old version of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, before a reviser had reshaped it; he also suggested that this reviser, in his turn, had recourse to Dṛḍhabala's version of the Carakasaṃhitā.⁵²³ The problems connected with this question will be discussed in the context of Dṛḍhabala's date.

Cakrapāṇi's mention of Videha as an author from whom Dṛḍhabala borrowed is confirmed by the former's comments on the latter's opinion about the number of diseases of the mouth (mukharoga) to be distinguished. ⁵²⁴ Dṛḍhabala prefers Videha's number of sixty-four to the number of sixty-five, acknowledged by Suśruta, in agreement with Bho ja. ⁵²⁵ The number of Dṛḍhabala's diseases of the ear (kaṛṇaroga), namely four, completely disagrees with Suśruta's number of twenty-eight. ⁵²⁶

The text of the Carakasamhitā also proves unequivocally that the list of Drdhabala's sources comprises more names than those of Susruta and Videha. Drdhabala deviated from both Videha and Susruta in recognizing ninety-six eye diseases, the number described by Karāla. 527

A special problem concerning Drdhabala's activities is posed by the so-called Kā-śmīrapātha of the *Carakasanhitā*, known from quotations, and by some regarded as the original text written by Drdhabala.

The Kāśmīrapāṭha and the kāśmīrāḥ are quoted or referred to by Āḍhamalla, ⁵²⁸ Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁵²⁹ Jejjaṭa, ⁵³⁰ Niścalakara, ⁵³¹ Śivadāsasena, ⁵³² Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ⁵³³ Vācaspati, ⁵³⁴ and Vijayarakṣita. ⁵³⁵

The available evidence shows that the text of the editions of the Carakasanhitā presents us with a number of problems. The recorded readings of the Kāśmīrapāṭha sometimes agree and sometimes disagree with the edited text. The attitude of the commentators towards the Kāśmīra text varies slightly; the majority of the Kāśmīra readings are unacceptable to them.

A survey of the data may elucidate the problems we are faced with. One of the items mentioned in Ca.Sū.3.3, the bark (tvac) of karavīra, is read as karavīra(ka) by the Kā-śmīras according to Niścala and Śivadāsasena, ⁵³⁶ who add that the Gauḍīyas regard karavīratvac as the proper reading. Cakrapāṇi gives no comment on karavīratvac.

The pipe for inhaling medicinal smoke should be trikoṣāphalita⁵³⁷ according to the text of the *Carakasaṃhitā* (Sū.5.50). Śivadāsasena remarks that the Kāśmīras prefer it to be trikosa and acchidra (without holes).

The editions of the Carakasanhitā give Ci.3.91–102 as part of the text and do not place it between brackets. Vijayaraksita and Vācaspati 538 regard these verses as be-

longing to the Kāśmīrapātha; Jejjata passes them over in silence; Cakrapāṇi may refer to them as read and explained by some, but superfluous in his view, which explains that he does not comment on them. ⁵³⁹ The thirteen saṃnipāta fevers characterized in Ci.3.90–102 are absent from the Suśrutasamhitā and Vāgbhata's works.

Cakrapāṇi states that Ci.3.117 is a verse read by the Kāśmīras at this place, but rejected by others. His own judgment is not recorded. Jejjaṭa does not comment on the verse, which gives the impression that it was absent from his text.

Cakrapāņi also informs us that Ci.3.119cd-128ab are only read by the Kāśmīras and not well known (nātriprasiddha). Jejjata ignores these verses.

Jejjata regards the two recipes of Ci.3.210-214 as unauthoritative (anārṣa); they are found in the text of the Kāśmīras and Saindhavas. Cakrapāṇi's remarks indicate that he was aware of the anomalous position of the verses, without rejecting them.

Vijayarakṣita and Vācaspati⁵⁴⁰ record a variant of Ci.8.52b, preferred by the Kā-śmīras. Cakrapāṇi is silent on this issue. Jejjaṭa's commentary on Ci.8 has not been preserved.

Cakrapāṇi declares that Ci.10.54cd-63, acceptable to the Saindhavas and Kāśmīras, are unauthoritative according to the ancient authorities. Jejjaṭa's comments are not available. The verses describe the aetiology, symptoms and treatment of a curious disease, called atattvābhiniveśa, referred to in the Sūtrasthāna (19.4). The stanzas are out of place in the chapter on the treatment of apasmāra. The disorder is not described elsewhere in the Carakasamhitā. 541

Niścalakara⁵⁴² records a slight variant of Ci.13.69ab, preferred by the Kāśmīras.

Cakrapāṇi records a variant of Ci.13.113, read in the Kāśmīra(pāṭha); this variant concerns the ratios of the ingredients of the recipe. The same variant is attributed to the Kāśmīras by Niścala. 543 Jejjata's commentary on Ci.13 has not been preserved.

Vijayarakṣita⁵⁴⁴ discloses that the Kāśmīras took exception to the neuter gender of viṣ and made it feminine. Jejjaṭa's comments are not available. Cakrapāṇi remarks that vis is sometimes a neuter noun.

Cakrapāṇi mentions a variant of Ci.25.4lc, reading snehainstead of taila. This variant, accepted by the Kāśmīras, is not referred to in Jejjata's commentary.

Vijayarakṣita's comments ad Mādhavanidāna 14.2 (= Ca.Ci.26.125) show that the Kāśmīras preferred a variant, of minor importance, that is also found in some of the MSS. Cakrapāṇi has no remarks on this variant. Jejjata's comments are not available.

Cakrapāṇi's comments on Ci.30.127cd-132 are interesting. He justifies his remarks by saying that, although the genuineness of Ci.30.128cd-132 is disputed, these verses are accepted by the Kāśmīras and others. Jejjaṭa gives even more information, stating that Ci.30.128cd-132, read by the Kāśmīras and Saindhavas, repeat what has already been discussed elsewhere; he concludes that the verses are to be rejected and that Dṛdhabala's text should be adhered to.

Cakra mentions a variant, read by the Kāśmīras, in his comments ad Ca.Si.12.16; his remark gives the impression that he disapproved of their reading. 545

Āḍhamalla's commentary on the Śārngadharasamhitā contains decisive evidence (ad III.8.2). This author reveals that a verse on the varieties of nasya (errhine) to be distinguished, read by the Kāśmīras, conflicts with the corresponding verse of Drdhabala

(Si.9.89). The verse, quoted by Ādhamalla, is also found in Niścala's Ratnaprabhā. 546

A variant, accepted by the Kāśmīras, and dealing with the quantity of guḍa to be used in a particular recipe, is recorded in the Kusumāvalī⁵⁴⁷ and Niścala's Ratnapra-bhā.⁵⁴⁸ This reference is problematic because the recipe, called māṇibhadramodaka, is not found in the Carakasamhitā.⁵⁴⁹

Some more readings and interpretations of the Kāśmīras, not yet located in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, are found in the *Ratnaprabhā* ad jvara 256–257, raktapitta 66–73, gulma 41–42, and kuṣṭha 6–7.

This survey of the available material proves unequivocally that the Kāśinīrapāṭha is not identical with Dṛḍhabala's text at all, being a version of the Carakasaṃhitā that was current in Kaśmīr and comparable with the versions of the Saindhavas, Gauḍīyas, etc. 550

The information we have on the Kāśmīrapāṭha shows that the editions of the Carakasaṃhitā are unsatisfactory in incorporating verses that did not form part of Dṛḍhabala's text. Our knowledge concerning the MSS of the Carakasaṃhitā leaves very much to be desired, but it may well be that they vary in the extent to which they adhere to Dṛḍhabala's text or to one of the regional versions. 551

Drdhabala is quoted or referred to by Ādhamalla, ⁵⁵² Aruṇadatta, ⁵⁵³ Āśubodha Vidyābhūṣaṇa's commentary on the *Paribhāṣāpradīpa*, ⁵⁵⁴ the author of the *Āyurvedā-bdhisāra*, ⁵⁵⁵ Bhāvamiśra, ⁵⁵⁶ Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁵⁵⁷ Dalhaṇa, ⁵⁵⁸ Gayadāsa, ⁵⁵⁹ Gangādhara, ⁵⁶⁰ Gopāladāsa in his *Cikitsāṇit*a, Govindasena in his *Paribhāṣāpradīpa*, ⁵⁶¹ Hārāṇacandra, ⁵⁶² Indu ⁵⁶³ Jejjaṭa, ⁵⁶⁴ Karandīkar in his *Nidānadīpikā*, ⁵⁶⁵ Nāganātha in his Nidānapradīpa, Narahari in his *Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana*, ⁵⁶⁶ Niścalakara, ⁵⁶⁷ Śivadāsasena, ⁵⁶⁸ Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, ⁵⁶⁹ Śrikaṇṭhadatta, ⁵⁷⁰ Vācaspati, ⁵⁷¹ and Vijayarakṣita. ⁵⁷² He is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portion of Niścala's *Ratnaprabhā*.

Drdhabala is usually referred to by his name, but Niścalakara also calls him Drdhaprabhu, ⁵⁷³ Carakapariśiṣṭakāra, ⁵⁷⁴ and Carakapariśiṣṭakṛt. ⁵⁷⁵ Niścala mentions Drdhabala's version of the *Carakasanhitā* as *Carakavākyapratisanskāra*, ⁵⁷⁶ *Drdhabalasanskāra*, ⁵⁷⁷ and Drdhabalagrantha. ⁵⁷⁸

Drdhabala himself tells us that he was a son of Kapilabala⁵⁷⁹ and was born in Pañcanadapura.⁵⁸⁰ The identity of Kapilabala is a matter of dispute⁵⁸¹; some regard him as identical with the medical authority called Kapila.⁵⁸²

The location of Pañcanadapura has been discussed by a number of scholars. The majority assume it to be the name of a city or region in either the Pañjāb or Kaśmīr, while a few consider it to be Vārāṇasī.

U.Ch. Dutt⁵⁸³ may have been the first author to put forward that Pañcanada means the Pañjāb. This suggestion, not supported by arguments, but probably based on the similarity of the five rivers (nada) of Pañcanada with those ●f the Pañjab, was adopted by P. Cordier, ⁵⁸⁴ J. Jolly, ⁵⁸⁵ and V. Śukla. ⁵⁸⁶ P. Cordier was more specific than U.Ch. Dutt in asserting that Pañcanadapura is the same as a place called Pañjpur, to the north of Attock in the Pañjāb. ⁵⁸⁷ A.F.R. Hoernle, who corresponded with P. Cordier on this matter, asked M.A. Stein to provide him with more details. The latter replied that there is no Pañjpur in the region of Attock; a Muslim place of pilgrimage, known as Pañjpīr,

NNW of Attock, appeared to have caused the confusion. 588

A.F.R. Hoernle was convinced that there was really no reason to connect Pañcanada with the Pañjāb. He also stressed that Dṛḍhabala refers to his birthplace as a definite locality (pura), not as a region. He added that several places are known which are called Pañcanada. One of them, mentioned in the Skandapurāṇa (Kāśīkhaṇḍa) 589 is a sacred place in the region of Vārāṇasī; this may well be the locality meant by Gaṇgādhara in his commentary on the Carakasanhitā as the native place of Dṛḍhabala. 590 Hoernle further remarked that a place called Pañcanada appears to have once existed in Kaśmīr, near the confluence of the rives Jhelam (Vitastā) and Sindhu; its place is indicated by the village of Pantzinōr, which lies close to what was the original site of that confluence in the later half of the ninth century, in the reign of king Avantivarınan. 591 Hoernle concluded that this Pañcanada in Kaśmīr must have been Dṛḍhabala's home. 592

Hoernle's identification of Pañcanada as a place in Kaśmīr, accepted by many later authors, ⁵⁹³ is no more than a guess, not supported by solid evidence, and obviously connected with his belief that the Kāśmīrapāṭha is the same as Dṛḍhabala's version of the Carakasaṛṇhitā; his late date of Dṛḍhabala may also have influenced his views on the identity of Pañcanada.

A fanciful theory has been advanced by G. Hāldār. ⁵⁹⁴ This author assumed that Drehabala's father, a paṇḍit born in Kaśmīr, moved, later in life, to the Pañjāb, and settled in Lavapura (i.e., Lahore), where his children were born. In his view, Pañcanadapura cannot be but Lavapura, because Pañcanada designates the Pañjāb and Lavapura is the pura of this region. He counters the identification of Pañcanadapura with Vārāṇasī by the arguments that the latter city is a purī, not a pura, and that the rivers of Vārāṇasī are referred to as nadī, not nada. ⁵⁹⁵

Drḍhabala's chronological position is a much discussed topic, about which conflicting opinions have been advanced.

A.F.R. Hoernle tried to establish that Dṛḍhabala borrowed from the Siddhayoga. 596 As an example, he pointed to Ca.Ni.3.17, identical with Siddhayoga 30.2, and supposed this stanza to be an interpolation of Dṛḍhabala, because it duplicates in verse the prose directions of Ca.Ni.3.16. Hoernle arrived at this conclusion by a complex reasoning: the author of the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha compressed in prose (A.s.Ci.16.2) the substance of Caraka's versified remarks in his chapter on the treatment of gulma (Ca.Ci.5.20–26); afterwards, the author of the Siddhayoga turned the compressed prose version once more into verse (30.1–4); still later, Dṛḍhabala added the prose of the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha and one of the verses of the Siddhayoga to Caraka's chapter on the nidāna of gulma, 597 without realizing, not only that the prose and verse versions are duplicates, but that both these versions are actually duplicates of Caraka's own genuine verses in his chapter on the treatment of gulma. 598

Hoernle's train of thought does not carry conviction. The Siddhayoga contains many verses found in the chapters of the Carakasamhitā that derive from Drdhabala; it is unacceptable to assume that all this material occurred primarily in the Siddhayoga and was put to use by Drdhabala. Not a single instance can be discovered in the commentaries that would confirm Hoernle's hypothesis. On the contrary, the Kusumāvalī, for example, has a remark, indicating that a particular recipe, useful against unmāda,

was explained by Jejjata, which means that it was borrowed from Dṛḍhabala's chapter on the treatment of this disorder. ⁵⁹⁹ Decisive evidence, overlooked by Hoernle, is the presence in the *Siddhayoga* of the new diseases described by Mādhava, which were unknown to Dṛḍhabala.

Hoernle also claimed that Drdhabala made use of the *Mādhavanidāna*, unaware as he was of Mādhava's innovations in the field of nosography. An example is his allegation that the verses on the nidāna of gulma in Ca.Ci.5 derive from Mādhava, who versified the prose on this subject in Ca.Ni.3 and incorporated his verses in his *Mādhavanidāna* (28.6–14 = Ca.Ci.5.9–17), from which work Drdhabala borrowed them. ⁶⁰⁰ Hoernle's contention that Drdhabala is posterior to Mādhava, because the latter was unacquainted with the Kāśmīrapāṭha, is invalidated by the fact that Drdhabala is not, as supposed by Hoernle, the author of the Kaśmīr recension. ⁶⁰¹

The number of ninety-six eye diseases, acknowledged by Drdhabala (Ci.26.129–131), does not, as Hoernle suggested, mean that he obtained that number by accepting the ninety-four diseases of the eye mentioned by Vāgbhaṭa and adding the two extra disorders of Mādhava. ⁶⁰² Cakrapāṇidatta clarifies this issue by giving the information that Drdhabala followed Karāla's system in this matter. ⁶⁰³

The assertion that Drdhabala borrowed from the Siddhayoga is contradicted by the fact that none of the numerous verses from Drdhabala's chapters of the Carakasamhitā in Vrnda's work is ascribed to that author in the commentary. The same applies to the Mādhavanidāna and its commentaries. Vijayarakṣita states straightforwardly that Mādhava included one of Drdhabala's verses in his treatise as a complement to a verse found in the Suśrutasamhitā. Hoernle's assertion that Vijayarakṣita's object was not to make a chronological, but an exegetical statement, was undoubtedly prompted by his need to explain away a fact running counter to his theory. 604

An important piece of evidence regarding Dṛḍhabala's date is provided by the references to Dṛḍhabala in Jejjaṭa's commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. As Jejjaṭa belongs to the seventh or eighth century, these references confirm that Dṛḍhabalapreceded Mā-dhava and Vṛṇda. This is corroborated by what is known about a commentary on Dṛ-dhabala's text by Āsādhavarman, who preceded Jejjaṭa.

Not yet clear is the question whether or not Bhatṭārahariścandra, a commentator on the Carakasaṇhitā who lived earlier than Jejjaṭa, was conversant with Dṛḍhabala's work.

The relationship between Dṛḍhabala and the works ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa was discussed by Hoernle, who held that the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha was put to use by Dṛḍhabala, whereas the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā was not yet known to him.

Hoernle developed his arguments from a comparison of the chapters on gulma in the Carakasanhitā, Aṣṭāngasangraha (attributed by him to Vāgbhaṭa I) and Aṣṭāngahrdayasanhitā (attributed to Vāgbhaṭa II, and supposed to be later than his namesake). His assertion that Ca.Ni.3.16 must be regarded as Dṛḍhabala's version of A.s.Ci.16. 2 stems from his thesis that the former passage is an interpolation and cannot have belonged to Caraka's original text, a supposition'resulting from Hoernle's belief that Caraka's text was devoid of inconsistencies. The same line of thought made Hoernle claim that Ca.Ci.5.172–182 consists of Dṛḍhabala's versification of a passage in prose

found in A.s.Ci.16.605

Hoernle's convictions about Caraka's consistency and systematic mind have, however, no sound basis and rest on a preconceived idea.

His notion that Dṛḍhabala arrived at his number of ninety-six eye diseases by adding the two extra disorders of Mādhava to the ninety-four of the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha has already been referred to.

P.V. Sharma disagrees with Hoernle in regarding the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha as a work of a later date than Dṛḍhabala. He argues that the succinct treatment of pañcakarman in the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha, compared with the elaborate treatment by Dṛḍhabala, testifies to the latter's anteriority. He also points to the quotation from Kapilabala (A.s.Sū. 20.17), identified by P.V. Sharma as Dṛḍhabala's father, which is, however, a debatable issue. 606

The Gulabkunverba team was of the opinion that both the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha and the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā show their indebtedness to Dṛḍhabala's version of the Carakasamhitā, thus attesting the latter's anteriority.⁶⁰⁷

The Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā is almost unanimously considered to have drawn extensively from Dṛḍhabala's version of the Carakasaṃhitā, which establishes that Dṛḍhabala lived before the age of composition of the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya (about A.D. 600). The chronological position of the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha with regard to the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā will be discussed in the section devoted to these works.

The terminus post quem cannot be determined with any precision. This date depends on the period in which the *Suśrutasaṃhitāwas* revised and its Uttaratantra added, and on the question whether or not Dṛḍhabala was acquainted with the revised and expanded text.

Hoernle's view that the $N\bar{a}van\bar{t}taka$ of the Bower MS borrowed from the $Caraka-sanhit\bar{a}$ before its revision and completion by Dṛḍhabala is not based on conclusive evidence, 608 and would, anyhow, not be of much avail on account of the uncertain chronological position of that text.

A number of details found in Drdhabala's version of the *Carakasamhitā* point to him as an author belonging to the Gupta period. Next to the details already referred to, additional evidence of the same type was collected by P.V. Sharma, in particular from the *Visņudharmottarapurāna*. 609

The data taken together suggests that Dṛḍhabala belongs to the period of about A.D. 300-500, 610

Patañ jali

Patañjali 611 and a work called Pātañjala612 are quoted in some medical works. Patañjali is quoted in Äśubodha Vidyābhūṣaṇa's commentary on the Paribhāṣā-pradīpa, 613 Gopāladāsa's Cikitsāmṛta, Govindasena's Paribhāṣā-pradīpa, 614 Raghunandana's Mugdhabodha, Śivadāsasena's commentary on the Cakradatta 615, Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya, 616 and Trivikrama's Lauhapradīpa. The Pātañjala is quoted by Śivadāsasena, 617 the Pātañjalatantra by Kāṣīrāma 618 and Trivikrama. Niścala refers to a Pātañjalalohaṣāstra. 619 The reference by Niścala and Śivadāsasena's citations show

that l'atañjali was known as a medical authority to the authors of a Yogaratnākara⁶²⁰ and Yogaratnasamuccaya.⁶²¹ Āśubodha and Nityabodha Senagupta reproduce, in their commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, some quotations from Patañjali and the Fātañjala found in Śivadāsa's commentary on the Cakradatta.⁶²²

Satyanārāyaṇaśāstrin's *Padārthavijīāna* also quotes Patañjali and the pātañjalāḥ; some of these quotations are, however, from the *Carakasaṃhitā*. 623 A quotation from the *Pātañjaladarśana* in Yogendranātha's *Āyurvijīānaratnākara* is from the Yoge sūtra. 624

Covindadāsa's Bhaisa jyarat nāvalī contains a recipe attributed to Patanjali. 625

The references and quotations in the works of Āśubodha, Govindasena, Kāśīrāma, Niścula, Śivadāsasena and Trivikrama indicate that Patañjali's work dealt with metallur; y (lohaśāstra) and its application to medicine. B. Seal claims that Patañjali gave elabt rate directions for many metallurgic and chemical processes, especially the preparation of metallic salts, alloys and amalgams, and the extraction, purification and assayir g of metals; he adds that it was probably Patañjali who discovered the use of the mixtures called vida. B. Seal regards Patañjali's Lohaśāstra as a later work than that of Nigārjuna on the same subject, an opinion based on the observation that the former': directions concerning particular processes are more complicated than those of the lt tter 626

Cuther medical writings ascribed to Patañjali are a Vātaskandha and Siddhāntasārāvalī, the latter work incorporates a Paittaskandha. 627

The Indian tradition regards Patañ jali as the author of a lost tantra on rasāyana. 628 Al-Birūnī was acquainted with Patañ jali's association with rasāyana. 629

F atañjali is the name of at least two famous authors; the one wrote the Mahābhāsya, the other the Yogasūtra.

An interesting development made the two fuse into one Patañjali, who, in addition to his expertise in grammar and yoga, was also credited with a thorough knowledge of medizine and allied subjects.

The medical works already referred to are often attributed to this composite Pataijali, as well as a commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, Vārttikas on that work, or a revised version of it. As a further complication, he is even considered to be identical with Caraka.

The threefold Patañjali is mentioned as a pratisaṃskartar of the Carakasaṃhitā in the introductory verses of Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā. 630 His Vārttikas on the Vaid akaśāstra are referred to in Rāmabhadradīkṣita's Patañjalicarita, 631 written at the end of the seventeenth or the beginning of the eighteenth century. 632 The tradition that in Patañjali wrote Vārttikas on the Carakasaṃhitā is endorsed by G. Hāldār, who asset is that Vijayarakṣita, in his part of the Madhukośa, quotes one of these Vārttikas, 633 which, after having existed independently, were incorporated in the text of the Carakasaṃhitā in the first century A.D. 634 The same author is convinced that one of P: tañjali's Vārttikas is cited in Nāgeśabhaṭṭa's (Vyākaraṇasiddhānta)mañjūṣā. 635 The slaim that Patañjali made additions to the text of the Carakasaṃhitā was also advanced by Sūramcandra. 636 Gaṇanātha Sena 637 regarded him, in agreement with Cakrapānidatta, as a pratisanskartar of the Carakasamhitā.

Āṣāḍhavarman, who wrote a commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā, is reported to have objected to views expressed in Patañjali's Vārttikas, which is thought to explain that Āṣāḍhavarman's work is known as Parihāravārttika. 638

The claim that a Patañjali wrote a Vārttika or Vārttikas on the Carakasamhitā is found in many publications. P.V. Sharma places this Patañjali, regarded as completely different from the one who wrote the Mahābhāṣya, but identical with the Patañjali of the Siddhāntasārāvalī, in the eighth century. These views are repeated by B. Rama Rao. Some other scholars who accept the former existence of a now lost commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā by Pātañjali are G. Mukhopadhyaya, K.R. Srikantamurthy, and G.P. Srivastava. Others are doubtful or reject the hypothesis.

The relatively late tradition that one and the same Patañjali was an expert on yoga, grammar and medicine, dealing in his works with the purification of mind, speech and body, is found in Bhoja's Nyāyavārītika (or Yogasūtravṛtti)⁶⁴⁵ and Rājamārtaṇḍa,⁶⁴⁶ Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā,⁶⁴⁷ Śivarāma's Kāñcanadarpaṇa on Subandhu's Vāsavadattā,⁶⁴⁸ Rāmabhadradīkita's Patañjalicarita,⁶⁴⁹ and Vijñānabhikṣu's Yogavārtika.⁶⁵⁰ Bharṭhari's Vākyapadīya contains a verse that obviously also refers to Patañjali as a threefold authority, though without mentioning his name.⁶⁵¹ Śaṃkarācārya's Pātañ jalayogasūtrabhāṣyavivaraṇa is acquainted with Patañjali as a medical expert.⁶⁵²

Bhoja depicted himself as a second Patañjali because his works also covered the fields of grammar, yoga and medicine.⁶⁵³

The identification of Patañjali and Caraka is implicitly found in a verse of Svāmikumāra's Carakapañjikā. 654 It is obviously accepted by Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana, which contains references to Caraka as Bhogīśvara, 655 Phaṇidhara, 656 Phaṇīśvara, 657 and Sahasraphaṇin. 658 This identification is connected with the tradition that both were incarnations of Śeṣa. 659 J. Filliozat suggested that this tradition forms part of the trend to make the transmissions of the sciences of grammar and medicine parallel to each other. 660 P.V Sharma put forward that the reason for bringing both authorities together may have been their similar role in the purification of body, speech and mind. 661

The way in which the traditions concerning Patañjali were elaborated in the course of time is reminiscent of the evolution of Nāgārjuna into a multifaceted legendary personality. It may therefore not be merely accidental that the former became associated with the Carakasaṇhitā and the latter with the Suśrutasaṇhitā. The stories about both show some remarkable parallels; the Nāgas, forexample, play an important role in their biographies. 662

Numerous scholars expressed their opinion on the problem how many authors called Patañjali should be distinguished. 663 Some of those defending the view that one and the same Patañjali wrote the *Mahābhāṣya*, the *Yogasūtra* and one or more works on medicine (metallurgy included) are Gaṇanātha Sena⁶⁶⁴, G. Mukhopadhyaya⁶⁶⁵ and G.P. Srivastava. 666 The identity of the authors of *Mahābhāṣya* and *Yogasūtra* was acknowledged by S. Dasgupta, 667 R. Garbe, 668 Liebich, 669 S.K. Ramachandra Rao, 670 and others. The investigations of H. Jacobi 670a and J.H. Woods made clear

1 Carakasamhitā

144

that these two works belong to two different periods,⁶⁷¹ a conclusion accepted in the majority of later publications on the subject.⁶⁷²

Three different Patañjalis are recognized by Atrideva, ⁶⁷³ P.V. Shanna ⁶⁷⁴ and K.R. Srikantamurthy, ⁶⁷⁵

Undecided on the issue are P. Deussen, ⁶⁷⁶ J. Filliozat, ⁶⁷⁷ Haridattaśarman, ⁶⁷⁸ Hemarājaśarman, ⁶⁷⁹ M. Müller, ⁶⁸⁰ S. Radhakrishnan, ⁶⁸¹ and Sūramcandra. ⁶⁸²

The clear-cut differences between the Carakasamhitā on the one hand, the Mahā-bhāsya and Yogasūtra on the other, were worked out and discussed by P.V. Sharma. 683

Chapter 14

Authorities mentioned in the Carakasamhitā

- o Abhijit Sū.1.10.
- o Agastya Sū.1.9; Ci.14.3; Ci.18.62.
- o Agniveśa Sū.1.31 and 39; Ci.12.3, etc.
- o Angiras Sū.1.8; Ci.13.4; Ci.14.3.
- Asita Sū.1.8; Ci.1⁴.3; Si.11.4.
- o Aśmarathya, Āśmarathya, or Āśvarathya Sū.1.10.
- o Āśvalāyana Sū.1.9.
- o Ātreya Sū.1.8 and 33, etc.
- o Ātreya Punarvasu Sū.26.9, etc.
- o Atri Ci.1⁴.3.
- o Atrija Sū.3.30; Sū.7.66; Sū.21.62; Ci.12.4; Ci.20.3; Ci.30.7; Si.11.3.
- o Atriputra Si.1.61.
- o Atrisūnu Sū.30.52.
- o Atrisuta Ci.22.3; Si.11.10.
- o Atryātmaja Ci.12.3.
- o Bādarāyana Sū.1.11.
- Badiśa Sū.1.11; Sū.26.5 and 8; Śā.6.21; Si.11.7.
- o Badiśa Dhāmārgava Sū.12.7; Sū.26.8.
- o Bhadrakāpya Sū.25.18; Sū.26.3, 8 and 83; Śā.6.21; Śā.8.32.
- o Bhadraśaunaka (see also Śaunaka) Śā.6.21; Si.11.9.
- Bharadvāja (compare Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja) Sū.1.3; Sū.25.20; Śā.3.4, 15, 22;
 Ci.1³.4.
- o Bhargava Sū.1.10.
- o Bhela Sū.1.31.
- o Bhiksu Ātreya Sū.1.9; Sū.25.24.
- o Bhrgu Sū.1.8; Ci.1³.4; Ci.1⁴.3; Si.11.4.
- o Cyavana Sū.1.10; Ci.11.72; Ci.12.20; Ci.14.44.
- o Devala Sū.1.10.
- Dhanvantari Śā.6.21.
- o Dhaumya Sū.1.12.
- o Gālava Sū.1.10.
- o Gārgya Sū.1.10.
- o Gautama Sū.1.8; Ci.14.3; Si.11.4 and 6.
- o Hārīta Sū.1.31.
- o Hiranyāksa Sū.1.12; Sū.25.14.

- o Hirarıyākṣa Kauśika (compare Kuśika) Sū.26.3 and 8.
- Jamadagni Sū. 1.8; Ci. 1³.4.
- o Janaka Vaideha Śā.6.21.
- o Jatūkarna Sū.1.31.
- o Kaikaśeva Sū.1.12.
- Kānkāyana (Bāhlīka)
 Sū.1.11;
 Sū.12.6;
 Sū.25.22-23;
 Sū.26.5 and 8;
 Śā.6.21.
- o Kapiñjala (v.l. Kapisthala) Sū.1.9.
- o Kāpya Sū.1.11; Sū.12.12; Si.11.4 and 8.
- o Kaśyapa (compare Mārīci Kaśyapa) Sū.1.8; Ci.14.3.
- o Kāśyapa Sū.1.12; Ci.1³.4.
- o Kātvāvana Sū.1.11.
- o Kaundinya (v.l. Kaundilya) Sū.1.10.
- o Kauśika Sū.25.16; Si.11.4.
- Kṛṣṇātreya Sū.11.65; Ci. 14.152; Ci.15.131 and 185; Ci.16.70-71; Ci.28.157 and
 164.
- o Kṣārapārii Sū.1.31.
- o Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja Sū.12.5; Sū.26.4 and 8; Śā.6.21.
- o Kuśa Sāmkṛtyāyana Sū.12.4.
- o Kuśika Sū.1.11; Sū.25.16 (identical with Hiranyākṣa).
- o Lokākṣa (v.l. Laugākṣa) Sū.1.12.
- o Maimatāyani Sū.1.13.
- o Maitreya Sū.1.13; Sū.10.4, 5, 23.
- o Mārīca Sū.1.12.
- o Marīci Sū.12.9-11.
- o Mārīci Kaśyapa Śā.6.21.
- o Mārkarideya Sū.1.9.
- Nārada Sū.1.8.Nimi Vaideha Sū.26.5 and 8.
- Paińgi Sū.1.12.
- o Parāśara Sū.1.31.
- o Pāriksi Sū.1.9.
- o Pārīksi Maudgalya Sū.25.8.
- Pulastya Sū.1.8; Ci.1⁴.3; Si.11.4.
- Punarvasu Sū.1.30, etc.
- o Pūrņākṣa Maudgalya Sū.26.3 and 8.
- Śākuneya Sū.1.13.
- Śākunteya Sū.26.3 and 8.
- o Sāmkhya Sū.1.8.
- o Sāmkrtya Sū.1.11.
- Śāndilya Sū.1.10
- Saraloman Sū.1.11; Sū.25.10.
- Śarkarāksa Sū.1.12.
- o Śaunaka (compare Bhadraśaunaka) Sü.1.13; Si.11.4.
- o Vaijavāpi Sū.1.11.

- Vāmadeva Sū.1.9; Ci.1⁴.3.
- o Vāmaka Sū.25.5 and 30; Si.11.5.
- Vārksi Sū.1.10.
- o Vāryovida Sū.12.8-10; Sü.25.12-13; Sū.26.4 and 8.
- Vasistha Sū.1.8; Ci.1³.4; Ci.1⁴.3.
- Viśvāmitra Sū.1.10.

ABHIJIT is a member of the assembly of sages described in the opening chapter of the Carakasamhitā. His name is absent from the parallel list in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa

Abhijit is a son of Punarvasu in the *Harivamśa*, whereas the *Viṣṇupurāṇa* calls him a son of Bhava and the father of Punarvasu.

Abhi jit is also the name of a naksatra.²

AGASTYA³ is mentioned on two occasions in the *Carakasaṃhitā* (Sū.1.9; Ci.1⁴.3) as a member of a group of sages. A recipe, called agastyaharītakī, is attributed to him in the same treatise (Ci.18.57–62); the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* ascribes to him an agastyāvaleha (U.52.42–46). The first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa* mentions him as Agasti among the sages who assembled on the slopes of the Himālayas.

Agastya, or, as he is sometimes called, Agasti, ⁴ is well known in Vedic literature, the epics, the Purāṇas, etc. ⁵ His name is connected with medicine and a number of other sciences. Agastya's spell is alluded to in the *Atharvaveda* as a means of destroying worms. ⁶ The *Mahābhārata* ⁷ refers to Agastya, who is said to live in the south, which is referred to as his region, ⁸ as the one who taught archery (dhanurveda) to Agniveśa ⁹ and as the patron of hunters. ¹⁰ A group of Agastyas is known to the *Rgveda*. The *Matsyapurāṇa* lists the Āgastyas as one of the seven main gotras. ¹¹

The Brahmavaivartapurāṇa mentions him as one of the sixteen pupils of Bhāskara to whom the āyurveda was passed on after its creation by Brahmā; each of them composed a medical treatise; Agastya's work was known as the Dvaidhanirṇayatantra. ¹² Hemādri refers in his Lakṣaṇaprakāśa to Āgastya ¹³ as one of a long series of sages from whom the āyurveda originates. ¹⁴ Agasta is also mentioned as an originator of āyurveda in the Rasendrasambhava.

Traditionally, Agastya is a specialist in rasāyana, the art of longevity; a lost tantra on rasāyana, the *Agastyatantra*, is sometimes ascribed to him. ¹⁵ Agastya is regarded as long-lived in the *Rāmāyaṇa*. His connection with rasāyana is clearly indicated by a quotation from one of his works in Cakrapāṇidatta's *Āyurvedadīpikā*. ¹⁶ In a work of the seventeenth century called *Kriyāyoga*, written in Sanskrit by Gannepūḍi Ādivenkaṭayogin, Agastya is said to be the originator of Kriyāyoga, in which rasāyana plays an important part. ¹⁷

Agasti is referred to as a medical authority in Tibet. He is mentioned in the $Mah\bar{a}$ -vyut patti. 18

Agastya is a great figure in the Tamil cultural tradition ¹⁹ and in the Indianized states of Southeast Asia. ²⁰ His importance in the South has a parallel in astronomy, where Agastya is the name of the star Canopus. ²¹

The introduction of Hinduism into Southern India was his achievement. ²² Numerous Tamil works are attributed to him. ²³ He is regarded as the founder of the Tamil grammatical tradition, ²⁴ the one who handed down the *Tiruvilaiyāṭaɪpurāṇam* to other sages, ²⁵ and, being the foremost among the eighteen Cittars of Siddha medicine, as the author of numerous medical treatises. ²⁶

Other sciences with which the name of Agastya is associated are: veterinary medicine, ²⁷ rasaśāstra, ²⁸ dharmaśāstra, the science of precious stones (ratnaśāstra), architecture, ²⁹ carpentry (takṣaśāstra), dancing (nāṭyaśāstra), archery (dhanurveda), astrology, ³⁰ divination, karmavipāka, etc. ³¹

Several works are ascribed to Agastya or associated with his name. 32

Medical works in Sanskrit ascribed to Agastya are: (1) Agastisamhitä or Agastyasamhitā, ³³ (2) Agastyavaidya, ³⁴ (3) Agastyanighantu, ³⁵ (4) Śabdasamgrahanighantu, ³⁶

Somaya, a Telugu author of the seventeenth century, wrote a medical treatise called *Bhiṣagvarāñjana* that contains the medical science as taught to Agastya by Dhanvantari.³⁷ The anonymous *Rudantīkalpa* consists of a conversation between Vasiṣtha and Agastya. The Telugu version of a *Rasapradīpikā*, ascribed to Bharadvāja in its Sanskrit version, is presented as being taught to Ātreya by Agastya.

Treatises on the lapidary art attributed to Agastya³⁸ are: Agastimata,³⁹ Agastī yā-Ratnaparīkṣā⁴⁰ or Maṇilakṣaṇa,⁴¹ Ratnaparīkṣāsamuccaya,⁴² and Ratnaśāstra.⁴³ He is mentioned as an authority on precious stones in the Ratnadī pikā and Rayaṇaparikkhā.

Agastya is quoted or referred to in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya, 44 the Bhelasainhitā, 45 Bindu's Rasapaddhati, 46 the Bower MS, 47 Cakrapānidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā⁴⁸ and Cikitsāsamgraha, ⁴⁹ Candrata's Yogaratnasamuccaya, Dattarāma's Brhadrasarājasundara, 50 the Dhanvantari, 51 Gangādhara's commentary on the Carakasamhitā, 52 Gopālakrsna's Rasendrasārasamgraha, 53 Govindadāsa's Bhaisajyaratnāvalī, 54 Gulrājsarmamisra's Siddhaprayogalatikā, 55 Hariprapanna's Rasayogasāgara, 56 Hariśaranānanda's Kūpīpakvarasanirmānavijājāna, 57 the Hārītasamhitā, 58 the Mādhavacikitsā, 59 Mānikyacandra's Rasāvatāra, 60 the Nādīśāstrasamgraha, 61 Nārāyanabhūpati's Nārāyanavilāsa,62 Nityanātha's Rasaratnākara,63 Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda,64 Raghunāthaprasāda's Vaidyakalpadruma,65 an anonymous Rudantīkalpa, 66 Sadānanda's Rasataranginī, 67 the Sahasrayoga, 68 the Samksiptasāra, 69 the Śārngadharasamhitā, 70 Sodhala's Gadanigraha, 71 Śrīdāsapandita's Hrdayabodhikā, 72 Śrīkanthadatta's commentary on the Siddhayoga, 73 Todara's Ayurvedasaukhya, 74 Trimalla's Yogatarangini⁷⁵ and Śataśloki. ⁷⁶ Vāgbhata's Astāngahrdayasamhitā. ⁷⁷ Astāngasamgraha, 78 and Astāngahrdayavaidūryakabhās va, 79 the Vaidyacintāmani, 80 Vangasena's Cikitsāsārasamgraha, 81 Vrnda's Siddhayoga, 82 and the Yogaratnākara. 83 Two formulae of an agastisūtarāja, found in a number of treatises, are quoted in the Bhāratabhaisajyaratnākara⁸⁴ and the Rasayogasāgara.⁸⁵ The latter compilation also contains the recipe of an agastivatī.86

ANGIRAS ⁸⁷ is one of the sages who took part in the gathering on the slopes of the Himālayas described in the first chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. The *Carakasaṃhitā* also mentions him as one of the sages who, by means of a particular

rasāyana, became free from disease and the afflictions of old age (Ci.13.4-6).

A MS of the Atreyasamhitā mentions a medical treatise called Āngirā. 88

Angiras is known as a medical authority, called Hod-yan, in the Tibetan tradition. ⁸⁹ Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda refers to one of his descendants, an Āngirasa. Angīrasa is one of a series of medical experts in the Milindapañha (4.7.20). ^{89a} The Atharvaveda knows the Angirasah as possessing knowledge about medicinal plants (8.7; 19.39) and calls the jangida plant Angiras (19.34). ⁹⁰

Angiras, one of the mythical seven sages (saptarsi), 91 or one of the group called the Prajāpatis, 92 is also an authority on dharmaśāstra 93 and one of the eighteen founders of jyotihśāstra. 94

ASITA 95 is mentioned thrice as a member of a group of sages in the Carakasanhitā, but without his own opinion on a particular subject being referred to. The Bhāvaprakāśa knows about his presence among the sages who assembled on the slopes of the Himālayas (I.1). Hemādri's Lakṣaṇaprakāśa presents him as one of the originators of āyurveda. His name occurs in the Atharvaveda (6.137.1)96 in connection with a herb called mtatm, used in promoting hair growth; this herb is said to have been brought from the house of Asita. 97

Asita is the son of Kaśyapa and the father of Devala in the Vāyupurāṇa, the father of Devala and Śāṇḍilya in the Kūrmapurāṇa, but the son of Devala in the Jaiminī yabrāhmana. 97a

An Asita is known as an authority on subjects connected with jyotisa. 98

AŚMARATHYA or ĀŚMARATHYA 99 takes part in the assembly of sages described in the opening chapter of the Carakasamhitā. 100 His name is absent from the parallel list in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa.

Aśmarathya/Āśmarathya is the name of a teacher in the Āśvalāyana-, Bhāradvāja-, and Śānkhāyanaśrautasūtra, the Bhāradvājagṛhyasūtra, 101 as well as in Bādarāyaṇa's Vedāntasūtras 101a and Śaṃkara's Bhāsya on the Vedāntasūtras 101b

 $\bar{\rm A}$ ŚVAL $\bar{\rm A}$ YANA 102 is well known in Vedic literature 103 as the author of the \bar{A} śval \bar{a} -yanaśrauta- and -grhyasūtra, and as the founder of a śākhā of the Rgveda. He was a pupil of Śaunaka. Later Indian literature is also acquainted with $\bar{\rm A}$ śval \bar{a} yana. 104 He is a member of the group of sages who assembled on the slopes of the Him \bar{a} layas in the Carakasaṃhit \bar{a} and $Bh\bar{a}$ vaprak \bar{a} śa (I.1). 105

ĀTREYA. 106

ATRI, 107

BĀDARĀYAŅA is the name of several teachers and authors. ¹⁰⁸ He is present among the sages on the slopes of the Himālayas in the *Carakasaṃhitā* and *Bhāvaprakāśa* (I.1). Bādarāyaṇa is another name for Kṛṣṇadvaipāyana Vyāsa, the compiler of the *Mahābhārata* and arranger of the Purānas, who, as the son of Parāśara, is also called Pārāśarya.

This Vyāsa is identified with Vedavyāsa, the arranger of the Vedas, and the Vyāsa who wrote a commentary on the *Yogasūtra*. The *Vedāntasūtra* is ascribed to a Bādarāyaṇa. A Vyāsa, who is quoted in Aruṇadatta's commentary on the *Aṣtāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā* (ad Sū.14.20) as a medical authority, is sometimes identified with Bādarāyaṇa. ¹⁶⁹ Bādarāyaṇa was also an authority on iyotisa. ¹¹⁰

BADIŚA, ¹¹¹ surnamed Dhāmārgava after the plant ¹¹² from which the instrument called badiśa ¹¹³ is made, ¹¹⁴ makes his appearance in the *Carakasaṃhitā* a number of times. Badiśa is a member of the group of sages mentioned in the first chapter of Caraka, but he is absent from the group in the *Bhāvaprakāśa* (I.1). He takes part in a discussion on the properties and actions of vāta (Ca.Sū.12), explaining which factors disturb or restore its balance. On another occasion (Ca.Sū.26), he puts forward that eight tastes should be distinguished, adding the caustic (kṣāra) and indistinct (avyakta) tastes to the usual six. ¹¹⁵ In the chapter dealing with the part or parts of the body which arise first in an embryo (Ca.Śā.6) he maintains that the arins and legs appear first. ¹¹⁶ In a chapter of the *Siddhisthāna* (Ca.Si.11), concerned with the question which fruits or seeds are the best for use in a non-oleaginous enema (āsthāpana), Badiśa, contradicting Gautama's view that dhāmārgava seeds are the best, recommends those of kuṭaja. ¹¹⁷

Badiśa is also mentioned in the *Bhelasaṇhitā*, where he participates in a discussion on the development of the embryo (Śā.4.30) that resembles the one found in the *Carakasaṃhitā* (Śā.6); as in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, he puts forward the view that the arms and legs are the first parts to develop.

BHADRAKĀPYA¹¹⁸ does not figure among the sages enumerated at the beginning of the Carakasamhitā, nor among the group mentioned in the Bhāvaprakāśa (I.1). He takes part in the discussion on the origin of the individual (Ca.Sū.25: yajjahpuruṣiya), where he, contradicting Kauśika, emits as his view that the individual human being and his diseases are the product of karman. In the chapter on the tastes (Ca.Sū.26: ātreyabhadrakāpyīya) he is a representative of the view that there is only one taste as the object of the gustatory sense and that this is the taste of water, ¹¹⁹ he also argues, contrary to Ātreya's view, that all types of fish, with the exception of cilicima, can be eaten in combination with milk. In the discussion on the part of the body that arises first during the development in the womb (Ca.Šā.6), Bhadrakāpya asserts that this is the navel. ¹²⁰ Finally, he is opposed to Ātreya's opinion on the regimen of a woman during the eighth month of her pregnancy (Ca.Śā.8.32).

BHADRAŚAUNAKA, also simply called Śaunaka, ¹²¹ makes his appearance in the *Carakasaṃhitā* several times. Śaunaka is a member of the assembly of sages in the opening chapter. In the chapter dealing with the part or parts of the body that develop first in an embryo (Śā.6), Bhadraśaunaka represents the view that these parts are the colon and rectum (pakvāśayaguda). ¹²² In the chapter containing a discussion on the choice of the best drug for use in a non-oleaginous enema (āsthāpana), Śaunaka shows a preference for the seeds of jīmūtaka (Ca.Si.11.5); ¹²³ the same group of verses

of the chapter mentions that Bhadraśaunaka rejected Kāpya's choice of kṛtavedhana ¹²⁴ (Ca.Si. 11.9). Some scholars ¹²⁵ assert that Śaunaka also gives his opinion in the chapter on the origin of the individual (Ca.Sū.25). These authors are convinced that the text of Ca.Sū.25.16–17, where Kauśika replies to (Hiranyākṣa) Kuśika, is corrupt, because Hiranyākṣa's patronymic is not Kuśika, but Kauśika; therefore they propose to read Śaunaka instead of Kauśika. ¹²⁶ This implies that Śaunaka disagrees with Hiranyākṣa in giving as his conviction that the parents are at the origin of an individual and his diseases.

The Bhelasaṃhitā (Sū.9.7cd-9) relates that (Bhadra)śaunaka ¹²⁷ contradicts Ātreya's opinion on the four pillars of treatment, by claiming that successful treatment is not guaranteed in the presence of the four. The Śarīrasthāna mentions Śaunaka's view that the head of the foetus is turned upwards in the womb (Śā.4.32); ¹²⁸ the same section refers to Śaunaka contradicting Ātreya on the means to influence the characteristics of an unborn child (Śā.8.3).

Vāgbhaṭa (A.h.Ka.6.15d-16 = A.s.Ka.8.20d-21) quotes a technical rule (paribhāṣā) of Śaunaka on the preparation of a sneha.

Apart from the treatises already mentioned, (Bhadra)śaunaka is quoted or referred to in Ananta's Yogaratnasamuccaya, ¹²⁹ Aruṇadatta's commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥrdaya, ¹³⁰ the Āyurvedābdhisāra, ¹³¹ Bhāvaprakāśa, ¹³² Bheṣajakalpa ¹³³ and Venkaṭeśa's commentary on that work, the Bheṣajjamañjūsāṣannaya, ¹³⁴ Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā, ¹³⁵ Candraṭa's Yogaratnasamuccaya, ¹³⁶ by Dalhaṇa, ¹³⁷ Hemādri, ¹³⁸ Indu, ¹³⁹ Jejjaṭa, ¹⁴⁰ Niścalakara, ¹⁴¹ in Rūpanayana's commentary on the Yogaśataka, ¹⁴² Śivadāṣasena's commentary on the Cakradatta, ¹⁴³ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta's commentary on the Siddhayoga, ¹⁴⁴ Toḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, ¹⁴⁵ Trimalla's Bṛhadyogataraṅgiṇī, ¹⁴⁶ Vāgbhaṭa's Aṣṭāṅgaḥrḍayavaiḍūryakabhāṣya, ¹⁴⁷ and the Vīrasiṃhāvaloka. ¹⁴⁸ An authority called Vṛddhaśaunaka ¹⁴⁹ is quoted in Trimalla's Yogataraṅgiṇī. ¹⁵⁰ and Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya. ¹⁵¹

The quotations from and references to Śaunaka and Bhadraśaunaka indicate that both are the same person. ¹⁵² Some scholars ¹⁵³ claim that the Bhadraśaunaka of Ca. Śā.6 and the Śaunaka of Su.Śā.3.32 are different persons, basing themselves on their incompatible views on the part of the body which develops first in an embryo.

The quotations from (Bhadra)saunaka prove that he was the author of a medical tantra in verse. ¹⁵⁴ Although it is often said that this Saunakatantra was a specialized treatise on sālākya, ¹⁵⁵ there is only one indication in support of this view, ¹⁵⁶ whereas, on the other hand, several quotations point to a more comprehensive medical work. ¹⁵⁷

A book on poisons ascribed to an Indian author, the *Kitāb al-sumūm* by Śānāq, preserved in an Arabic translation, ¹⁵⁸ is by some regarded as a work of Śaunaka. ¹⁵⁹ Others place it as the *Śaunakasamhitā* on the list of treatises specialized in toxicology (agadatantra). ¹⁶⁰

Sanaka is quoted by Āḍhamalla. 161 The Rasaratnadīpikā by Śrīvāṇeśvara Bhaṭṭā-cārya contains a number of prescriptions attributed to Sanaka.

Śaunaka is also connected with expiatory rites (śānti) and said to be the author of a grahajanana-, ¹⁶² krsnacaturdaśījanana- ¹⁶³ and yamalajananaśānti. ¹⁶⁴

The Matsyapurāṇa refers to Śaunaka as an authority on vāstuśāstra. 165
The Śaunakas of the Vedic tradition, the Purāṇas, etc., are without any doubt different from the medical authority of this name. 166

BHARADVĀJA 167 is the member of the assembly of sages, described in the opening chapter of the Carakasamhitā, who is their deputee to the abode of Indra in order to enlist his aid in removing the diseases which had befallen mankind. Bharadvāja's request is granted by Indra, who transmits to him the medical science, 168 subsequently passed on to the other sages, among whom Arreya is the most prominent one. He is also one of the sages who, through the use of the brāhmarasāyana, became free from disease and the afflictions of old age (Ca.Ci.1³.4-6). Bharadvā ja is, however, strikingly absent when a group of sages approaches Indra for instruction on a second occasion (Ca.Ci. 1⁴.3). ¹⁶⁹ In the discussion on the origin of the individual (Ca.Sū.25), Bharadvā ja rejects Bhadrakāpya's view and advances that svabhāva (nature, i.e., the laws of nature) has to be regarded as the origin of the individual and his diseases. 170 Bharadvā ja contradicts Ātreya in the chapter on the descent of the embryo into the womb (garbhāvakrānti; Ca.Śā.3), disagreeing with the latter's statement that the embryo arises from a combination of elements, which consists of the parents, the atman, satmya (suitability) and nourishment (rasa), with the psyche (sattva) as an associated element. Although being strongly opposed to Atreya's view, Bharadvaja does not bring forward an alternative thesis and restricts himself to an enumeration of proofs to the contrary.

In the Bhelasaṃhitā he represents the view, ascribed to Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja in the Carakasaṃhitā, that the head is the first part of the body to appear during the development of the embryo in the womb (Śā.4.30); he also expounds (Śā.4.32) that the head of the foetus is turned downwards in the womb. In another chapter of the same treatise (Śā.6) he tries, as in the Carakasaṃhitā, to disprove Ātreya's thesis on the elements leading to the formation of an embryo; he also rejects Ātreya's statement that vāyu and agni leave the body after death.

The Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha (Sū.1.6) mentions Bharadvāja as one of the sages who received the āyurveda from Indra, but he is not referred to in the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā (Sū.1), where Indra transmits the āyurveda to Ātreya directly. The Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha also mentions Bharadvāja as one of the sages and divinities who have to be honoured in the preparation of an eye-salve, called sarvārthasiddhāgada (Sū.8.59).

The assembly of sages on the slopes of the Himālayas is, with the Carakasaṃhitā as its model, also described in Bhāvamiśra's Bhāvaprakāśa (I.1). There it is said that Bharadvāja was the first one to arrive. The story of his being deputed by the sages is the same as in the Carakasaṃhitā, but it is preceded by a parallel version in which Ātreya, on his own account, goes to Indra's heaven and receives the āyurveda.

A MS of the Ātreyasaṃhitā mentions a medical treatise called Bhāradvājī. 171

Bharadvāja's association with the science of medicine is moreover attested by a passage in Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakāśa*, where he is called an āyurvedasya kartar. 172

The Kalyāṇakāraka mentions a Bharadvāja as being opposed to a non-vegetarian diet. Bharadvāja is a medical authority in a Kāśyapasaṃhitä. ¹⁷³ Bharadvāja's name is also found in the context of veterinary medicine. Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda (I.1)

relates¹⁷⁴ that he was one of the sages who gathered at Romapāda's court in order to be instructed in the science of hastyāyurveda. The same treatise reports (IV4; p. 581) that Bharadvāja distinguished two types of fatty substances, those of vegetable (sthāvara) and animal (jaṅgama) origin.

Bharadvāja is, apart from medicine, also connected with ratnaśāstra, ¹⁷⁵ dharmaśāstra, ¹⁷⁶ nītiśāstra, ¹⁷⁷ jyotiṣa, ¹⁷⁸ and dhanurvidyā. ¹⁷⁹

Bharadvāja is a legendary figure, often mentioned in Vedic literature, the epics, and the Purāṇas. ¹⁸⁰ He is sometimes associated with Ātreya. ¹⁸¹ The Harivaṃśa (I.29) states that Bharadvāja taught āyurveda to Dhanvantari, ¹⁸² although the sage's name does not appear in the story about the descent of āyurveda in the Suśrutasaṃhitā. Bharadvāja is reputed as a very long-lived sage, not only in the Carakasaṃhitā (Sū.1.26), but already in Vedic literature. ¹⁸⁴ The Taittirīyabrāhmaṇa and the Mahābhārata describe him as having lived through three lives as the purohita of three successive kings of Kāśī, namely Dhanvantari, Sudāsa and Pratardana. ¹⁸⁵

The numerous references to Bharadvāja in very diverse contexts have led a number of scholars to assume that more than one Bharadvāja has to be distinguished. ¹⁸⁶ The singular fact that in the *Carakasaṇhitā* a Bharadvāja transmits the āyurveda to Ātreya, while a sage of the same name disagrees with Ātreya on important doctrinal matters, is at the origin of the view that the two are obviously not identical. ¹⁸⁷ The Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja, who also appears in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, is usually regarded as distinct from Bharadvāja. ¹⁸⁸ The Kṛṣṇa Bharadvāja of the *Kāśyapasaṃhitā* (Sū.27. 3), who holds the opinion that diseases are fourfold (āgantu, vātaja, pittaja, kaphaja), is certainly a separate authority.

Bharadvāja's fame as a medical authority spread to Tibet. He is mentioned in the *Mahāvyutpatti* as Bha-ra rgyal-mćhan. ¹⁸⁹ The Tibetan medical historiographer Jayapaṇḍita Blo-bzan-ḥphrin-las (second half seventeenth century) writes in his *Thob-yig* that an Indian physician, called Bharadvāja, was invited to the court of the famous king Sron-bćan-sgam-po (first half seventh century). ¹⁹⁰ The same story is found in other Tibetan works. ¹⁹¹ This Bharadvāja is credited with two medical treatises; ¹⁹² he is also said to have translated, in collaboration with the Nepalese physician Balaha, Indian medical treatises into Tibetan. ¹⁹³

Bharadvāja was, according to the *Bhāvaprakāśa* (I.1.55–56), the author of a medical tantra. Some ascribe a now lost samhitā on kāyacikitsā to him. ¹⁹⁴

Works attributed to Bharadvāja ¹⁹⁵ are: (1) Amśubodhinī, probably a work on rasaśāstra; ¹⁹⁶ (2) Bharadvāja, a medical treatise of which only the portion dealing with meha has been preserved; ¹⁹⁷ (3) Bheṣajakalpa; ¹⁹⁸ (4) Bharadvājakalpa; ¹⁹⁹ (5) Rasapradīpikā; ²⁰⁰ (6) Vimānaśāstra or Vaimānikaprakaraṇa. ²⁰¹

Formulae ascribed to Bharadvāja or Bhāradvāja are: (bṛhat)phalaghṛta, 202 copacīnīpāka, 203 citrakāvaleha, 204 mañjisthādipāka, 205 and saubhāgyaśunthī. 206

Bharadvāja/Bhāradvāja is also quoted or referred to in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya, ²⁰⁷ the Ārogyāmṛtabindu, the Āyurvedāgama, the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, ²⁰⁸ Bhoja's Yuktikalpataru, ²⁰⁹ the Bṛhannighaṇṭuraṭnākara, ²¹⁰ Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā, ²¹¹ Candranandana's Padāṛthacandrikā, ²¹² Candraṭa's Yogaratnasamuccaya, Gayadāsa's commentary on the Śarīrasthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā,

the Haṃsarājanidāna, ²¹³ Indu's commentaries on the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya ²¹⁴ and Aṣṭāngasamgraha, ²¹⁵ the Jvaracikitsita, the Jvarasamuccaya, the Kairalī commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā, ²¹⁶ Narasiṃha's commentary on the Rasavaiśeṣikasūtra, ²¹⁷ the Nāḍīṣāstrasaṃgraha, ²¹⁸ Parameśvara's Vākyapradīpikā, ²¹⁹ Soḍhala's Gadanigraha, ²²⁰ Śrīdāsapaṇḍita's commentary on the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā, ²²¹ Svāmikumāra's commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā, ²²² the Tāmbūlakalpaṣamgraha, the Tāmbūlamañjarī, Ṭoḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, ²²³ and Vangasena's Cikitsāsārasaṃgraha. ²²⁴

A verse from a work by Bharadvāja, quoted by Śivadāsasena, ²²⁵ may be from the Bharadvājadharmasūtra. ²²⁶

BHĀRGAVA ²²⁷ is mentioned as one of the sages who are assembled on the slopes of the Himalāya in the opening chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and in Bhāvamiśra's *Bhāvaprakāśa*. A MS of the *Ātreyasaṇhitā* mentions a medical treatise called *Bhārgavī*. ²²⁸

The first chapter of Pālakāpya's *Hastyāyurveda* informs us of the presence of Bhārgava among the sages at Romapāda's court who want to be instructed in hastyāyurveda.

Many Bhārgava's, i.e., descendants of Bhṛgu, are known,²²⁹ for example Cyavana, Jamadagni and Vṛddhajīvaka. The Kāśyapasaṛnhitā, in the form of a dialogue between Kaśyapa and Vṛddhajīvaka, is therefore also called Bhārgavīyasaṇṇhitā. The Carakasaṃhitā once refers to Cyavana by calling him Bhārgava.²³⁰ The Kāśyapasaṇhitā relates that another Bhārgava, called Pramati, held the view that all diseases, being afflictive, are one (Sū.27.3).²³¹ The Kalyāṇakāraka mentions Bhārgava among the authorities who were opposed to a non-vegetarian diet.

A medical authority called Bhārgava is quoted in Anantakumāra's *Yogaratnasamuccaya*. ²³² Recipes, attributed to Bhārgava, are found in Anantakumāra's *Yogaratnasamuccaya*. ²³³ the *Bhaisajyaratnāvalī*, ²³⁴ *Rasaratnadīpikā*, ²³⁵ and *Rasaratnākara*. ²³⁶

Bhārgava is also known as an authority on jyotişa ²³⁷ and nītiśāstra. ²³⁸ Several Bhārgavas are masters of dhanurveda in the *Mahābhārata*. ²³⁹

BHIKṣU ĀTREYA ²⁴⁰ is a person who appears in the *Carakasaṇhitā* on two occasions. He is amember of the group of sages in the first chapter of the treatise and he takes part in the discussion on the origin of the individual (Sū.25). In the latter chapter he rejects Kārikāyana's view and is an advocate of the thesis that the individual and his diseases are, as well as the whole universe, governed by time (Sū.25.24). Opinions differ as to the identity of this bhikṣu Ātreya, especially with regard to the question whether or not he is the same as the Ātreya of Buddhist literature who taught medicine to the famous physician Jīvaka in Takṣaśilā. ²⁴¹ The *Carakasaṇhitā* only points to a religious mendicant (bhikṣu), whose views do not impress as inspired by Buddhism. The *Bhāvaprakāśa* (I.1) fails to mention bhikṣu Ātreya as one of the sages assembled on the slopes of the Himālayas.

BHRGU ²⁴² is one of the sages who, on two occasions (Ca.Sū.1.8 and Ci.1⁴.3), turn to India forhelp in relieving the suffering of mankind, caused by diseases. ²⁴³ He is one of

the sages who, through the use of a particular rasāyana, became free from disease and the afflictions of old age (Ca.Ci.1³.4–6). Bhṛgu is also mentioned among the group of sages who approach Ātreya in order to hear from him which fruits are the best for use in a non-oleaginous enema, but he has no personal opinion on this subject (Ca.Si.11.3–14). The Kāśyapasaṃhitā relates that Indra handed the āyurveda down to the four sages Kaśyapa, Vaśiṣṭha, Atri and Bhṛgu. ²⁴⁴ The Bhāvaprakāśa (I.1) mentions Bhṛgu among the sages who received the āyurveda from Indra, with Bharadvā ja acting as their mediator.

Hemādri's *Lakṣanaprakāśa* calls Bhṛgu an āyurvedasya kartar. ²⁴⁵ The *Bṛhannigha-nturatnākara* regards him as the author of a medical saṃhitā. ²⁴⁶ Some Indian scholars refer to him as the author of a lost rasāyanatantra. ²⁴⁷ Bhṛgu is mentioned as a medical authority, called Nan-spon, in a Sanskrit-Tibetan lexicon, called *Mahāvyutpatti*, prepared by order of the King Khri-Ide sron-bćan (816–838). ²⁴⁸

Bhṛgu is one of the Prajāpatis ²⁴⁹ and also a well-known sage in many branches of Sanskrit literature. ²⁵⁰ He is associated with various sciences: dharmaśāstra, nītiśāstra, vāstuśāstra, śilpaśāstra, jyotiṣa, dhanurveda and āyurveda. ²⁵¹ He is in Pālakāpya's *Hastyāyurveda* one of the sages assembled at Romapāda's court who want to be instructed in hastāyurveda; Nīlakaṇṭha's *Mātangalīlā* also mentions him in relation with the science of elephants.

A Karmavipāka, in the form of a conversation of Bhṛgu, Bharata and Śakuntalā, also called Bhārgava- or Bhārgavīyakarmavipāka, is ascribed to Bharata, Bhṛgu or Bhārgava in the MSS; it contains material on dharmaṣāstra, astrology and medicine. ²⁵² Ṣātātapa's Karmavipāka is a dialogue between Vasistha and Bhṛgu. ²⁵³

Bhṛgu is referred to by Āḍhamalla, ²⁵⁴ Harṣakīrti, ²⁵⁵ Hemādri, ²⁵⁶ Tīsaṭa, ²⁵⁷ Ṭoḍa-ra, ²⁵⁸ and Vācaspati. ²⁵⁹

Formulae attributed to Bhṛgu are: ānandarasa, ²⁶⁰ bhṛguharītakī, ²⁶¹ kaṇṭakārīpā-ka, ²⁶² pramadānandarasa, ²⁶³ and vyāghrīharītakī. ²⁶⁴

CYAVANA is a member of the assembly of sages in the opening chapter of the Carakasanhitā. His name is found again at the end of the formula of cyavanaprāśa (Ci.1¹.62-74), a rasāyana preparation that is very famous since it restored youth to Cyavana when he had grown very old. This story about Cyavana is alluded to again in the second and fourth parts of the same chapter (Ci.1².3 and 20, 1⁴.44). The first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa makes mention of Cyavana among the assembled sages on the slopes of the Himālayas. The Aṣṭāngasangraha (Sū.8.59) refers to Cyavana as one of the sages and deities who have to be honoured anterior to the preparation of an eye-salve, called sarvārthasiddha. The same text (U.16.88) mentions him as one of the sages and deities to be honoured for the protection of one's eyesight. The Bṛhannighanṭuratnākara²65 regards him as the author of a medical saṃhitā.²66 The Bṛahmavaivartapurāṇa (Bṛahmakhaṇḍa 16.9-22) tells that Cyavana wrote a medical treatise, called Jīvadāna.²67 According to the first chapter of Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda, Cyavana was one of the sages at Romapāda's court who wanted instruction in the medicine of elephants.

Cyavana is a well-known sage in Sanskrit literature. 268 The story how the Asvins

made him, when he was very old, youthful again, is referred to in some hymns of the Rgveda²⁶⁹ and told in various texts, for example the Jaiminīyabrāhmaṇa, Pañcaviṃśabrāhmaṇa, Śatapathabrāhmaṇa, Mahābhārata,²⁷⁰ and Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha.²⁷¹
Cyavana was a son of Bhṛgu; hence he is called Bhārgava in the Carakasaṃhitā²⁷²
and Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha.²⁷³

The famous formula of cyavanaprāśa, an electuary (avaleha), is found in numerous medical treatises. ²⁷⁴ The Bower MS describes an amṛtataila that bestowed long life on Cyavana and Mārkandeya. ²⁷⁵ The Rasaratnasamuccaya contains a recipe given by Śaṃkara to Cyavana, ²⁷⁶ the Yogaratnākara a formula given to Cyavana by Prathamātri. ²⁷⁷ Cyavana is also referred to in dharmaśāstra texts ²⁷⁸ as one of the eighteen founders of astrology, ²⁷⁹ and as an authority on jyotiṣa. ²⁸⁰ Dhanurveda, the science of weaponry, is the peculiar reserve of the descendants of Cyavana in the Mahābhārata. ²⁸¹

DEVALA ²⁸² is a member of the group of sages, assembled on the slopes of the Himalāya, who are mentioned in the opening chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*, as well as in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśā*.

Devala is mentioned as an originator of āyurveda in Hemādri's Laksana prakāśa. 283

A Devala is a Vedic rsi to whom some hymns are ascribed. Another Devala was cursed by Rambhā, whose love for him he did not reciprocate; as a result of this curse, he was born as Astāvakra, with a crooked body, in a later life. ^{283a} This Devala was the son of Asita, a sage also present at the meeting of sages described in the *Carakasamhitā*. Other sources call him the father of Asita. ^{283b}

Sages called Devala are connected with dharmaśāstra, 284 astronomy, 285 astrology, and medicine. 286

The grandfather of Pārini was also called Devala.

Devala and his treatise, called *Devalīya*, are quoted by Anantakumāra in his *Yogaratnasamuccaya*,²⁸⁷ in Ballālasena's *Adbhutasāgara*,²⁸⁸ Lakṣmīdhara's *Kṛtya-kalpataru*,²⁸⁹ Mitramiśra's *Vīramitrodaya*,²⁹⁰ Śivadatta's auto-commentary on the *Śivakoṣa*,²⁹¹ Śrīdāsapaṇḍita's commentary on the *Aṣṭāngaḥṛḍayasaṃḥitā*,²⁹² and in the *Tāmbūlakalpasaṃgraha*.

DHANVANTARI. 293

DHAUMYA is one of the sages who assembled on the slopes of the Himālayas, according to the first chapter of the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the $Bh\bar{a}vaprak\bar{a}\hat{s}a$.

Dhaumya was the younger brother of Devala and the family priest of the Pāṇḍavas. His name is associated with works on dharmaśāstra and nīti. 294

A medical Dhaumyasamhitā is recorded in the Kavīndrācāryasūcipattram. 295

GĀLAVA takes part in the meeting of the sages in the opening chapter of the Carakasaṃhitā. The first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa mentions him in the same context.

Gālava²⁹⁶ figures in Vedic literature, the *Mahābhārata* and the Purāṇas. He is a pupil of Viśvāmitra in the stories told about him in the *Mahābhārata*,²⁹⁷ but a son of Viśvāmitra in most of the Purānas.^{297a}

His name is associated with the Śikṣā and Kramapātha of the *Rgveda*²⁹⁸ and also with the *Yajurveda*.²⁹⁹ He was an authority on grammar according to Yāska's *Nirukta* and Pānini's *Astādhyāyī*.³⁰⁰

Pāńcāla Bābhravya, i.e., Gālava, is mentioned as an author on kāmaśāstra in Vātsyāyana's $K\bar{a}$ masūtra. 301

Hemādri's Lakṣaṇaprakāśa refers to Gālava as an āyurvedasya kartar. The Indian tradition regards him as the author of a lost tantra on śālākya. 303

Dalhana remarks that some consider him to be one of the twelve pupils of Dhanvantari, 304

Gālava is obviously an authority on medicine in a quotation, ascribed to the dhānvāntarīyāh, in Śivadatta's auto-commentary on the Śivakosa. 305

GARGA was one of the sages who gathered in the Himālayas according to the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. The Bower MS (I.8) mentions him in a comparable context. He is not referred to in the *Carakasamhitā*. ³⁰⁶

Several Gargas are known in Sanskrit literature. They are associated with dharmaśāstra, karmavipāka,³⁰⁷ grammar, astronomy, astrology, prognostication,³⁰⁸ fortunetelling,³⁰⁹ vāstuśāstra, ³¹⁰ and medicine.³¹¹

Garga's name is found to be connected with the medical science as applied to human beings and horses. 312

A *Jvaraśānti* from the *Gargasaṃhitā* ³¹³ is recorded in the manuscript catalogues. ³¹⁴ The *Matsyapurāṇa* contains some verses on abnormal pregnancies by Garga. ³¹⁵ The *Kāśyapīyakṛṣisūkti* refers to Garga as the author of a treatise on cookery (pākaśāstra). ³¹⁶

Garga is quoted, as a medical authority, in Cāmunda's *Jvaratimirabhāskara*, ³¹⁷ Kavikanthahāra's *Prayogaratnākara*, Śrīkṛṣṇavidyāvāgīśabhaṭṭācārya's *Ṣaṭkarmadīpi-kā*, ³¹⁸ and Ṭodara's *Āyurvedasaukhya*. ³¹⁹

An authority called Vrddhagarga is known as an astronomical authority, referred to in Varāhamihira's *Bṛhatsaṃhitā*. ³²⁰ He is also quoted in Ballālasena's *Adbhutasāgara* ³²¹ and in the *Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya*.

GĀRGYA takes part in the meeting of sages in the opening chapter of the Caraka-saṃhitā. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa, where, moreover, Garga is present, whose name is not found in the list of the Carakasaṃhitā. Dalhaṇa (ad Su.Sū.1.3) states that he, along with some other sages who are known as specialists in śālakya, is by some regarded as a pupil of Dhanvantari. In the Kāśyapasaṃhitā (Si.2.11) he expresses the view that a clyster (basti) can be given to children from the day they are born. The Hārītasaṃhitā (pariśiṣṭādhyāya 9) mentions a medical Gārgīsaṃhitā. A MS of the Ātreyasaṃhitā, probably containing some version of the Hārītasaṃhitā, also mentions a medical treatise called Gārgī. 322 The Kalyāṇakāraka refers to Gārgya as being opposed to a non-vegetarian diet. In

Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda Gārgya is one of the sages at Romapāda's court who want to be instructed in the medicine of elephants. The same treatise (IV.4) relates that in his opinion semen (śukra) and brain tissue (mastiṣka) do not belong to the group of fatty substances to be employed in medicine; in this he contradicts Pālakāpya. A medical Gārgyasamhitā is said to have formed part of the library of Kavīndrācārya. 323

Several Indian scholars ascribe a lost śālākyatantra to Gārgya. 324

Several Gārgyas, descendants of Garga, are known in Vedic literature, ³²⁵ the *Mahābhārata* ³²⁶ and the Purāṇas; they are connected, apart from medicine, with several sciences, ³²⁷ such as grammar, dharmaśāstra, takṣaśāstra, vāstuśāstra, agriculture, ³²⁸ and meteorology. ³²⁹

Gārgya is quoted in the *Vīrasiṃhāvaloka*. A medical treatise, called *Uttaragārgya*, is quoted several times in Anantakumāra's *Yogaratnasamuccaya*. 331

GAUTAMA is one of the sages enumerated in the opening chapter of the Carakasain-hitā. ³³² He is present when a number of sages approach Indra on a second occasion (Ca.Ci.1⁴.3) and takes part in the discussion with Ātreya on the best drug to be used in a non-oleaginous enema, where he brings forward that the seeds of dhāmārgava are his choice (Ca.Si.11.4 and 6cd-7ab). Gautama is also a member of the assembly of sages in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa. A Subhūti Gautama³³³ appears in the Suśrutasaṃhitā (Śā.3.32), where he expresses the opinion that the trunk is the first part of the embryo to be formed. A MS of the Ātreyasaṃhitā, probably containing a version of the Hārītasaṃhitā, mentions a medical treatise called Gautamī. ³³⁴ The Kalyānakāraka refers to a Gautama who is opposed to a non-vegetarian diet, and to another authority of the same name who is favourably disposed towards such a diet.

Several Gautamas are known in Sanskrit literature. Gotama and his sons are already mentioned in the Rgveda. A verse of Rgveda 10.137, said to be curative of all diseases, is ascribed to him. ³³⁵ A number of descendants of Gotama, called Gautamas, ³³⁶ are referred to in Vedic literature, the Mahābhārata, the Purāṇas, etc. ³³⁷ The oldest dharmasūtra is that of Gautama. ³³⁸ The Nyāyasūtra is ascribed to Akṣapāda Gotama or Gautama. Other sciences, with which his name is associated, are astronomy, astrology, archery, and śakunaśāstra. ³³⁹

Gautama's name is also met with in the field of veterinary science. He is mentioned in the first chapter of Nīlakaṇṭha's Mātaṅgalīlā as one of the sages who granted Romapāda the boon to catch wild elephants. In Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda he is one of the sages at Romapāda's court who want instruction in the medicine of elephants; Pālakāpya's treatise states that Gautama distinguished six classes of elephants (III.8.298) and four types of fatty substances to be employed in medicine (IV.4). Godāvara's Hariharacaturaṅga (1.173–174) refers to Gautama's distinction of six classes of elephants. Somadeva's Yaśastilaka also refers to him as an authority on elephant-lore. A Gotama is known as the author of a treatise on the diseases of cattle (gavāyurveda), since quotations from it are found in the Rājamārtanda. The Arthaśāstra is acquainted with Gautama as an authority on cattle-breeding.

In the field of human medicine Gautama is traditionally regarded as the author of a salvatantra. 343

A medical Gautamasanıhitā is also recorded. 344

Apart from the above-mentioned medical treatises, Gautama is referred to or quoted in the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha, 345 the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, 346 by Gayadāsa, 347 in the Haṃsarājanidāna, 348 the toxicological Kāśyapasaṃhitā, 349 the Nāḍī prabodhana, Rājīvalocana's Siddhayogāṃava, 350 Vācaspati's commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, 351 Vijayarakṣita's part of the Madhukośa on the Mādhavanidāna, 352 and the Vīrasiṃhāvaloka. 353

An authority called Vrddhagautama is quoted in the $\bar{A}yuved\bar{a}bdhis\bar{a}ra^{354}$ and $V\bar{i}$ rasimhāvaloka. 355

The quotations from and references to Gautama do not justify the attribution of a surgical treatise (śalyatantra) to him, but point to a specialist in toxicology and prognostication.

The spread of Gautama's fame as a medical authority to Tibet is attested by the mention of Gotamabhartar as one of the authors from whose writings a Tibetan $\bar{A}yurvedasarvas\bar{a}rasangraha$ was compiled. ³⁵⁶

HĀRĪTA is a member of the group of six pupils of Ātreya Punarvasu who are tradtionally credited with the composition of a treatise on kāyacikitsā, based on the teachings of their preceptor (Ca.Sū.1.30–33). 357

The samhitā of Hārīta is referred to by Ādhamalla, 358 and in the Brhannighantu-ratnākara. 359 Hārīta's opinion on a particular subject is referred to by Vāgbhata, next to that of Agniveśa. 360 His weight as a medical authority appears from Hemādri's commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā³⁶¹ and Kṣemaśarman's Kṣemakutūhala, 362 which give him the same status as Caraka and Suśruta.

The Bower MS ³⁶³ describes Hārita ³⁶⁴ as forming part of a group of sages who are interested in medicinal plants.

Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakāśa* makes mention of Hārīta as one of the originators of āyurveda. ³⁶⁵ Hārīta is considered to be one of the paramarsis. ³⁶⁶

The Tibetan tradition is acquainted with Hārīta as a medical authority; his Tibetan name is Ljan-snohi bu in the Mahāvyut patti. 367

Hārīta's position in the Hārītasaṃhitā is comparable to that of Agniveśa in the Carakasaṃhitā and Bhela in the Bhelasaṃhitā. He is represented as the chief pupil of Ātreya and receives his medical instruction from the latter. 368

Hārīta and his treatise are quoted in a large number of medical works. 369

Medical works associated with Hārīta's name are the Hārītavyutpatti, ³⁷⁰ a Lohatantra, ³⁷¹ a Nādītantra, ³⁷² and a Takrapānavidhi. ³⁷³ A Cikitsārahasya is attributed to Hārītamuni. ³⁷⁴

Persons called Hārīta are well known in Indian literature. Branches of learning with which they are connected are, in particular, dharmaśāstra and philosophy, ³⁷⁵

HIRANYĀKŞA ³⁷⁶ is a member of the group of sages enumerated in the opening chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. ³⁷⁷ In the discussion on the origin of the individual he rejects Vāryovida's thesis and expresses the opinion that the individual and his diseases arise from the six dhātus, ³⁷⁸ as declared by the Sāmkhya philosophers (Ca.Sū.25.14—

15). Hiranyākṣa is in his turn contradicted by Kauśika, who calls his opponent Kuśika. Hiranyākṣa is also present among the sages who deliberate on the tastes and holds the view that four tastes should be distinguished: savoury and wholesome, savoury and unwholesome, unsavoury and wholesome, unsavoury and unwholesome (Ca.Sū.26.3 and 8); in this chapter he is called Hiranyākṣa Kauśika. The Kāśyapasaṃhitā (Sū.27.3) presents Hiranyākṣa as a sage who distinguishes seven types of diseases: caused by one of the three doṣas, by a combination of two doṣas, and by all three collectively. The Bhāvaprakāśa mentions Hiranyākṣa in its first chapter as one of the sages assembled on the slopes of the Himālayas. The Kalyāṇakāraka refers to Hiranyākṣaka as one of those who are opposed to a non-vegetarian diet.

The Indian tradition regards Hiraṇyākṣa as the author of a lost tantra on kaumārabhrtva.³⁷⁹

Hiranyākṣa is quoted by Āḍhamalla, 380 Anantakumāra, 381 the Bhesajjamañ jūsā-sannaya, 382 Cakrapāṇidatta, 383 Gayadāsa, 384 the Kairalī commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā, 385 Śivadāsasena, 386 Śrīdāsapaṇdita, 387 Śrīkanthadatta, 388 Vācaspati, 389 and the Wākhyāsāra on the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā. 390

JAMADAGNI³⁹¹ is a member of the assembly of sages in the opening chapters of the Carakasanihitā and Bhāvaprakäśa. The Carakasanhitā (Ci.1³.4-6) refers to him as one of the sages who, by means of the use of a particular rasāyana, acquired a life free from disease and the afflictions of old age. Hemādri remarks in his Lakṣaṇaprakāśa that Jamadagni was an originator of āyurveda (āyurvedasya kartar). ³⁹² Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda mentions him as one of the sages at Romapāda's court who want to be instructed in elephant medicine. A medical Jamadagnisanhitā is also recorded. ³⁹³

Jamadagni is already associated with medicine in the Vedas. A verse of *Rgveda* 10.137, a hymn said to be curative of all diseases, is ascribed to him in Sāyaṇa's commentary. *Atharvaveda* 5.23.10 connects Jamadagni with the destruction of worms; 6. 137 alludes to the story that he uprooted the herb nitatnī in order to promote the growth of his daughter's hair. ³⁹⁴

The Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad associates Jamadagni with one of the prāṇas. 395

Dalhana quotes a verse from Jamadagni that deals with warfare ³⁹⁶ and may be from a treatise on dhanurveda or arthasāstra. ³⁹⁷ Rcīka passed on his knowledge of this science to his son Jamadagni. ³⁹⁸

In the ${\it Mah\bar abh\bar arata}$ and the Purāṇas, Jamadagni is famous as the father of Paraśurāma.

Janaka of Videha (Vaideha) appears once in the Carakasaṃhitā. He brings forward, in one of the chapters of the Śārīrasthāna (Śā.6.21), that the sense organs arise first during embryonic development. In the Kāśyapasaṇhitā (Si.3) he is one of a number of sages who give their views on emetics and purgatives in the treatment of children. The Aṣṭā-ṅgasaṇgraha mentions him as one to be honoured during the preparation of a panacea in the form of an eye-salve (añjana), called sarvārthasiddhānjana (A.s.Sū.8.58–59). 399

Arunadatta says that Janaka was the author of a treatise (tantra) on diseases of the ears, eyes, nose and throat, the domain of a specialist in śālākya. 400 A Janakatantra is

quoted in the glosses accompanying a MS of the Astāngahrdayasamhitā. 401

The Brahmavaivartapurāna (Brahmakhanda 16.9–22) refers to Janaka as a vogin who composed a medical treatise called Vaidvasamdehabhañ jana. 402 Hemādri, in his Laksanaprakāśa, calls the royal sage (rājarsi) Janaka an originator of āyurveda. 403

Janaka is said to be quoted in the Madhukośa and referred to by Gayadāsa. 464 A formula of prasāranītaila is ascribed to him. 405

Janaka was a king of Videha, 406 which implies that references to and quotations from (the king of) Videha may apply to Janaka; another king of Videha, Nimi, a specialist is śālākya as well, is, however, more often quoted than Janaka in medical texts, and also referred to as (the king of) Videha. 407

An illustration of this difficulty in identifying the king of Videha, when no proper name is added, 408 is found in Dalhana's commentary on Su.U.1.4cd-8ab, where the king of Videha is mentioned. Dalhana regards him as Nimi, but informs us that others read a number of additional stanzas, telling a story how Janaka lost his eyesight and later received from the sun god, who was pleased by his penance, the caksurveda, i.e., the science of ophthalmology. The list of authors of a lost salakyatantra, found in the books of several Indian scholars, 409 comprise a Videha- and a Nimitantra, which either means that Videha is distinct from both Janaka and Nimi, or that he is identical with Janaka, 410

The Astāngahrdayasamhitā describes a remedy against all eye diseases (U.13.26-27) and another one against diseases of the oral cavity and throat (U.22.81-83), both said to be devised by the king of Videha, identified by the commentator Candranandana as Janaka, c.q., the sage from Mithilā (i.e., Janaka). 411 The Astāngasangraha (U.17.7) recommends that obeisance be made to the king of Videha, identified as Janaka by the commentator Indu, before proceeding to the couching of a cataract. The same treatise describes the seven vegas of poison according to various authorities; one of these is the king of Videha, identified again as Janaka by Indu (U.40.34).

The references to Janaka point to him as a specialist in śālākya.

JĀTŪKARNA 412 or -karnya 413 is in the Carakasamhitā one of the six disciples of Ātreya Punarvasu who, each one separately, composed their own medical works. 414

Several Jātūkarnas and -karnyas are known in Vedic literature and the Purāṇas. 415 Jātūkarna is also quoted in works on dharmaśāstra. 416

Jātūkarņa is traditionally regarded as the author of a lost samhitā on kāyacikitsā. 417 A Jātūkarnyatantra and -samhitā are recorded in the list of Kavīndrācārya's manuscripts. 418 The Jatūkarnasamhitā was accessible to Niścalakara, since he consulted three old copies of this treatise in order to test the correctness of a particular reading. 419 Cakrapānidatta remarks that the work of Jatūkarņa was not, like the Agniveśatantra, redacted subsequently by another author. 420

Hemādri's Laksanaprakāśa calls Jatūkarna one of the founders of āyurveda. 421 It is said that he is mentioned by Salihotra as a medical authority. 422 Jatūkarna (Rgyaskyegs rna) is one of a series of medical authorities enumerated in a Sanskrit-Tibetan lexicon, called Mahāvyutpatti, prepared by order of the king Khri-lde sron-bćan (A.D. 816 - 838), 423

Apart from the sources already mentioned, Jātūkarņa or -karņya is quoted or referred to by the following authors and in the following works: Anantakumāra, 424 the Basavarājīya, 425 Bhāvamiśra, 426 the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, 427 Cakrapānidatta, 428 Candraṭa, 429 Dalhaṇa, 430 Gaṅgādhara, 431 Gayadāsa, 432 Hemādri, 433 Indu, 434 Jejjaṭa, 435 the Ivaracikitsita and Ivarasamuccaya, the Kairalī commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṇhitā, 436 Karandīkar in his Nidānadīpikā, 437 the Kāśyapasaṃhitā, 438 Nāganātha in his Nidānapradīpa, Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana, 430 Niścalakara, 440 the Rasaratnākara, 441 Śivadāsasena, 442 Soḍhala, 443 Śrīdāsapaṇ�ita, 444 Śrī-kaṇṭhadatta, 445 Vijayarakṣita, 446 Yogendranātha's Āyurvijīnānaratnākara, and an anonymous text. 447 Jatūkarṇa is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā. 448

The quotations from Jātūkarna show that the treatise going under his name was a complete textbook, similarto the Agniveśatantra or Carakasamhitā, 449 and held in high esteem.

Niścalakara refers very frequently to Jātūkarṇa's treatise, once called the Jātūkarṇatantra, 450 in order to confirm quotations on the same subjects from the Carakasaṃhitā. Both works were related to each other, as appears from Niścala calling the Jātūkarṇatantra a samānatantra. 451 Occasionally, Jātūkarṇa's views differed from those found in the Carakasaṃhitā. 452

Jātūkarṇa's work was one of the sources of Cakrapāṇidatta's *Cikitsāsaṃgraha.* ⁴⁵³ It was probably one of the sources of the *Ma'din al-Ṣṇifā*', a Persian medical treatise, compiled by Miyān Bhūwah in 1512. ⁴⁵⁴

Niścala remarks that Mādhava followed a particular opinion of Jātūkarņa, ⁴⁵⁵ Vāgbhaṭa sometimes preferred Jātūkarṇa to Caraka. ⁴⁵⁶ Candraṭa was also influenced by Jātūkarṇa. ⁴⁵⁷

KAIKAŚEYA⁴⁵⁸ is a member of the assembly of sages described in the opening chapter of the *Carakasanhitā*. The first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa* omits his name in its enumeration of the participants in this assembly.

G. Hāldār regards Kaikaśeya as a son of Kaikaśī, known from the Rāmāyaṇa, where she is the mother of Rāvaṇa, Kumbhakarṇa and Vibhīṣaṇa; 459 in his opinion, Rāvaṇa may be meant, who is well known as the author of medical treatises. 460

KĀNKĀYANA ⁴⁶¹ is a member of the assembly of sages in the opening chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the *Bhā-vaprakāśa*. In the *Carakasaṃhitā* he appears on a number of occasions. He takes part in the discussion on vāta (Ca. Sū. 12.6). In the chapter on the origin of the individual, he rejects Bharadvāja's thesis and declares Prajāpati, the creator of the sentient and insentient world, to be the origin of all pleasure and pain (Ca.Sū.25.22–23). Kānkāyana also expresses his view on the number of the tastes, stating that they are innumerable (Ca. Sū.26.8). ⁴⁶² In the discussion on the formation of the embryo, he claims that the first part to develop is the heart (Ca.Śā.6.21). ⁴⁶³ The *Carakasaṃhitā* calls him the physician from Bāhlīka (Sū.12.6; 26.8; Śā.6.21), even the best of physicians from that country (Sū.26.5), which is usually identified as Balkh, i.e., Bactria. ⁴⁶⁴ The *Carakasamhitā* is

the only text that informs us of the country of origin of Kānkāyana.

The Kāśyapasaṃhitā (Sū.27.3) records that Kāṅkāyana distinguished three types of diseases: curable, mitigable, and incurable. Palhaṇa states that some regard him as one of those pupils of Dhanvantari who were specialists in śālākya. 465 The Indian tradition still regards him as the author of a lost tantra on śālākya. 466 In Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda, Kāṅkāyana figures among the sages who want instruction in the medicine of elephants.

Kāṅkāyana is not a name only found in medical literature. His name appears among the teachers of the *Atharvavedapariśiṣṭa.*⁴⁶⁷ The *Kauśikasūtra* mentions a Kāṅkāyana who is neither designated as a Bactrian nor as a physician. Ales A medical authority Kakkāyana, i.e., Kāṅkāyana, is met with in the *Milindapañha*.

P.V. Sharma⁴⁷⁰ suggested that the name Kānkāyana may be derived from the term kanka⁴⁷¹ as designating a pretended brāhmana (chadmadvija, chadmavipra),⁴⁷² on account of his origin from a peripheral and unorthodox part of the Āryan territory.

Repeatedly the question has been raised whether or not Kāṅkāyana is identical with an Indian, called Kaṅkah, whose name appears in a number of Arabic texts as a physician and astronomer-astrologer. ⁴⁷³ Opinions differ on this point. ⁴⁷⁴

A small number of prescriptions are attributed to Kāṇkāyana in many medical treatises. Some of these are: Ananta's Yogaratnasamuccaya, ⁴⁷⁵ the Bower Manuscript, ⁴⁷⁶ the Cakradatta, ⁴⁷⁷ Candraṭa's Yogaratnasamuccaya, Dattarāma's Bṛhadrasarājasundara, ⁴⁷⁸ the treatise called Dhanvantari, ⁴⁷⁹ Gopālakṛṣṇa's Rasendrasārasaṃgraḥa, ⁴⁸⁰ Govindadāsa's Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī, ⁴⁸¹ the Hārītasaṇhitā, ⁴⁸² the Mādhavacikitsā, ⁴⁸³ Māṇikyacandra's Rasāvatāra, ⁴⁸⁴ Niścalakara's commentary on the Cakradatta, ⁴⁸⁵ Nityanātha's Rasaratnākara, ⁴⁸⁶ the Rasasārasaṃgraha, ⁴⁸⁷ the Sahasrayoga, ⁴⁸⁸ the Śāṇŋadharasaṇhitā, ⁴⁸⁹ Soḍhala's Gadanigraha, ⁴⁹⁰ Tīṣaṭa's Cikitsākalikā, ⁴⁹¹ the Toḍarānanda, ⁴⁹² Vāgbhaṭa's Aṣṭāṇgasaṃgraha, ⁴⁹³ the Vaidyacintāmaṇi, ⁴⁹⁴ Vangasena's Cikitsāšārasamgraha, ⁴⁹⁵ and Vrnda's Siddhayoga. ⁴⁹⁶

A Kānkāyanī ya is quoted in the Bhesajjaman jūsāsannaya.

KAPIÑJALA is one of the members of the assembly of sages described in the opening chapter of the Carakasaṃhitā. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa.

Kapiñ jala is uncommon as a personal name in Indian literature. ⁴⁹⁷ A variant, found in part of the MSS of the *Carakasanhitā*, adopted by some editors, ⁴⁹⁸ and preferred by some scholars, ⁴⁹⁹ is Kapiṣṭhala. Sometimes Bharadvāja and Kapiṣṭhala, whose names follow one upon the other in the list of the *Carakasanhitā*, are taken as indicating one person. ⁵⁰⁰ Another variant of Kapiñjala is Kapidhvaja. ⁵⁰¹

The Kapiṣṭhalas, a subdivision of the Kaṭha school of the Black Yajurveda, were to be found in the Pañjāb, but have entirely disappeared in later times. Their recension of the Black Yajurveda has only fragmentarily been preserved. 502

A Kapisthala is referred to as an authority on omina (śakuna) in the Brhatsamhitā (86.1). 503

A medical Kapiñjalatantra is recorded in some manuscript catalogues. 504 Some ascribe a lost tantra on rasāyana to Kapiñjala. 505

KĀPYA 506 is a member of the assembly of sages described in the opening chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. He also figures as such in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. The Bower MS (I.8) mentions him in a comparable context.

The Carakasanhitā presents Kāpya as a sage who takes part in two discussions. The chapter on vāta includes statements by him on the effects of soma, inherent in kapha (Ca.Sū.12.12). 507 In the chapter on the best type of fruit to be used in a non-oleaginous enema, Kāpya's choice falls on that of kṛtavedhana 508 (Ca.Si.11.8cd-9ab).

Kāpya is associated with the science of elephants in Nīlākantha's Mātangalīlā⁵⁰⁹ and Pālakāpya's Hastāvurveda.⁵¹⁰

A person of the same name is known from other branches of Indian literature. 511

KAŚYAPA and Mārīci Kaśyapa, both figuring in the Carakasaṃhitā, are probably identical, Kaśyapa being a son of Marīci in the epics and the Purāṇas. 512 Kaśyapa, as well as Kāśyapa and Mārīca, are members of the group of sages described in the opening chapter of the Carakasaṃhitā. 513 The three names, as occurring in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa, are Kaśyapa, Kāśyapa and Marīci.

The Carakasaṃhitā mentions Kaśyapa again as one of the sages who approached Indra on a second occasion (Ci.1⁴.3). In the discussion on the question which part of the embryo is formed first, Mārīci Kaśyapa articulates the view that the problem is insoluble, since the development of the embryo is inaccessible to observation (Ca.Śā.6. 21). ⁵¹⁴

The Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha refers to Kaśyapa as one of the sages who received the ā-yurveda from Indra (Sū.1.4–10). He is referred to in the same context in Candranan-dana's Padāṛthacandrikā (ad A.h.Sū.1.3-4ab).

Kaśyapa is the teacher of Vrddhajīvaka in the Kāśyapasanhitā or Vrddhajīvakī-yatantra. 515 This treatise, which calls Kaśyapa also Mārīca and Prajāpati, relates that Kaśyapa composed a medical treatise that was later abridged by Vrddhajīvaka. The Kāśyapasanhitā abounds in laudatory epithets applied to Kaśyapa. 516

Kaśyapa's name is already connected with medicine in the Rg- and Atharvaveda. A Vedic hymn, called Kaśyapa's spell and specifically concerned with the removal of disorders called yaksman, appears to have been popular, being preserved in three closely related forms. 517

Kaśyapa⁵¹⁸ is the father of the snakes in the *Mahābhārata*, where he is is endowed with the knowledge of curing those bitten by them. ⁵¹⁹

Kaśyapa's name is also associated with dharmaśāstra, 520 astrology, and related subjects. 521

A medical work called Ayurveda is attributed to Kaśyapa. 522

He is quoted as a medical authority by Cakrapāṇidatta 523 and in the *Jvarasamu-ccaya*. 524

Some formulae, said to derive from Kaśyapa, 525 are also known. 526 Vāgbhaṭa's works contain a recipe devised by Vrddhakaśyapa or -kāśyapa. 527

KāŚYAPA ⁵²⁸ is one of the sages enumerated in the opening chapter of the *Carakasaṇ-hitā*. The first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa* mentions him in the same context. The *Astā-*

ingasanngraha (Sū.1.4–10) claims that Kāśyapa belonged to the sages who received the āyurveda from Indra. His name is found a second time in the Carakasannhitā (Ci.1³.4–6) as one of the sages who acquired a life free from disease and the ravages of old age through the use of a particular rasāyana preparation. ⁵²⁹ In the discussion on the formation of the embryo, as told in the Bhelasannhitā (Śā.4.30), Kāśyapa brings forward that it is the eye which develops first.

The name Kāśyapa is, as a patronymic, applied to several persons in Vedic literature, the Mahābhārata, and the Purāṇas. 530 The Mahābhārata presents Kāśyapa as wellversed in the treatment of snake-bites. 531 Kālidāsa's Abhijñānaśākuntala relates that Kāśyapa gave protection to Dusyanta's son, Bharata.

In Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda he is one of the sages who are interested in elephant medicine. The same treatise refers to the seven vegas, ⁵³² as distinguished by Kāśyapa, that occur after the bite of a poisonous animal (II.8.13); he is also mentioned in the chapter on sphoṭikā (II.11.12 and 25); another chapter (III.8.296) states that there are eighteen mixed types of elephants according to Kāśyapa. These eighteen types of elephants, distinguished by Kāśyapa, are also referred to in Godāvara's Hariharacaturanga (1.185–186).

Kāśyapa is, apart from medicine, associated with agriculture 533 and a number of other sciences. 534

Medical texts ascribed to him are an Avagāhanavidhi, 535 Kāsyapasaṃhitā, 536 Kāsyapīyaroganidāna, 537 and Āyurvedasāstra. 538 A MS of the Ātreyasaṃhitā, probably containing some version of the Hārītasaṃhitā, mentions a medical treatise called Kāsyapā, associated either with Kasyapa or Kāsyapa. 539

Hemādri's Lakṣaṇaprakāśa calls Kāśyapa one of the originators of āyurveda.⁵⁴⁰ He appears as a medical teacher in the toxicological Kāśyapasaṇhitā⁵⁴¹ and the Kāśyaparṣiproktastrīcikitsāsūtra.⁵⁴² He is usually regarded as a specialist in kaumārabhrtya⁵⁴³ and agadatantra (toxicology).⁵⁴⁴

The references to and quotations from Kāśyapa and his works indicate that at least three different kinds of treatise were attributed to one or more Kāśyapas, namely works on kaumārabhṛtya (and internal medicine), agadatatantra, and rasaśāstra. ⁵⁴⁵ The same applies to authors called Vṛddhakāśyapa. Kāśyapa is also known as a medical authority in the Tibetan tradition. ⁵⁴⁶

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Kāśyapa are: Āḍhamalla, 547 Aruṇadatta, 548 Āśubodha and Nityabodha Senagupta in their commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, the Āyurvedābdhisāra, 549 Bhāvamišra, 550 the Bower MS, 551 the Bṛhannighaṇṭuratnākara, 552 Cakrapāṇidatta, 553 Dalhaṇa, 554 Dattarāma's Ajīrṇamañjarī 555 and Rasarājasundara, 556 Gayadāsa, 557 Govindadāsa, 558 Gulrājśarmamiśra's Siddhaprayogalatikā, 559 Hemādri, 560 Indu, 561 the Jvaracikitsita, 562 the Kairalī commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāṇgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā, 563 Karandīkar's Nidānadīpikā, 564 Kāšīnātha's Cikitsākramakalpavallī, 565 the Nāḍīśāstrasaṃgraḥa, Narahari's Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana, 566 the Nighaṇṭuratnākara, 567 Nīlakaṇtha's Basavarājī-ya, 568 Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā, 569 Niṭyanātha's Rasaratnākara, 570 Parameśvara's Vākyapradīpikā, 571 Rāvaṇa's Bālatantra, 572 Rūpanayana's commentary on the Yoga-śataka, Śaṇkara's Vaidyavinoda, 573 Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, 574 Śrīkanthadatta, 575 Todara, 576

Trimalla, ⁵⁷⁷ Ugrāditya, ⁵⁷⁸ Vāgbhaṭa, ⁵⁷⁹ the Vaidyacintāmaṭui, ⁵⁸⁰ Vaṅgasena's Cikitsā-sārasaṃgraha, ⁵⁸¹ and the Yogaratnākara. ⁵⁸² Kāśyapa is also quoted (on agadatantra) by the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā. ⁵⁸³

A work called Kāśyapīya is quoted by Anantakumāra,⁵⁸⁴ the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁵⁸⁵ Dalhaṇa,⁵⁸⁶ Gayadāsa,⁵⁸⁷ Hārāṇacandra,⁵⁸⁸ Śaṃkara, ⁵⁸⁹ Śivadāsasena, ⁵⁹⁰ and the author of the Jvaracikitsita.

A Vrddhakāśyapa is quoted or referred to by Ādhamalla, ⁵⁹¹ Anantakumāra, ⁵⁹² Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁵⁹³ Dalhaṇa, ⁵⁹⁴ Gayadāsa, ⁵⁹⁵ Indu, ⁵⁹⁶ the *Kairalī* commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā, ⁵⁹⁷ the *Kāṣyapasaṃhitā*, ⁵⁹⁸ Narasiṃha in his commentary on the *Mādhavanidāna*, Niścalakara in his *Ratnaprabhā*, ⁵⁹⁹ Rāvana in his *Kumāratantra*, ⁶⁰⁰ the *Sahasrayoga*, ⁶⁰¹ Śivadāsasena, ⁶⁰² Sodhala, ⁶⁰³ Śrīkanthadatta, ⁶⁰⁴ Vācaspati, ⁶⁰⁵ and Vāgbhata. ⁶⁰⁶

A Mahākāsyapīya and Vrddhakāsyapīya are quoted in the Bhesajjamañjūsäsannaya.

KĀŢYĀYANA is a member of the assembly of sages described in the opening chapter of the Carakasaṃhitā. His name occurs in the same context in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāša.

Kātyāyana's name is rare in Sanskrit medical literature, but more frequent in relationship to other branches of learning. 607 A Sarvānukramanī of the Rgveda, a Prātiśākhya of the White Yajurveda, a śrautasūtra, śulvasūtra, and works on dharmaśastra are attributed to him; a famous Kātyāyana was the author of the Vārttika on Pāṇini's Aṣṭā-dhyāyī; 608 the name is also found in Bhaṭtotpala's commentary on the Bṛhatsaṃhitā of Varāhamihira 609

Kātyāyana is regarded as the author of a lost tantra on śālākya. 610

A medical work, called *Kātyāyanīya*, is quoted by Anantakumāra⁶¹¹ and in the *Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya*. The *Vīrasimhāvaloka* refers once to Kātyāyana.⁶¹²

KAUNDINYA 613 is a member of the assembly of sages described at the beginning of the Carakasamhitā. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāša. The Kalyāṇakāraka refers to him as one of those who are opposed to a nonvegetarian diet.

Kaundinya is the name of an ancient sage, amongst other things connected with the science of grammar. 614

KAUŚIKA is a sage whose name appears twice in the Carakasamhitā. He gives his opinion on the origin of the individual, declaring the parents to be the origin of the individual and his diseases (Sū.25.16–17). ⁶¹⁵ He is also present among the sages who discuss which fruit can best be used in a non-oleaginous enema, but does not give his own view on the subject (Si.11.4).

Kauśika's name is connected with the Kauśikasūtra of the Atharvaveda⁶¹⁶ and with the Atharvavedapariśiṣṭa. The Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad mentions a teacher called Kauśika, pupil of Kauṇḍinya. A sage called Kauśika was known to Pāṇini; the Mahābhārata also refers to a person of this name. ⁶¹⁷

Hemādri's Lakşaņaprakāśa knows Kauśika as one of the originators of āyurveda 618

He is also mentioned as a medical authority in a Kāśyapasamhitā. 619

Kauśika is quoted or referred to by Gopāladāsa in his *Cikitsāmṛta*, in the *Nādī-sāstrasaṃgraha*, ⁶²⁰ by Niścalakara, and by Śrīvallabhagaṇi in his commentary on Hemacandra's *Nighaṇtuśeṣa*. ⁶²¹

Śiva (called Giritanayāvallabha) revealed the formula of rāsnādikvātha to a person called Kauśika. 622

Niścala quotes twenty-one verses of Kauśika on the influence of nakṣatras on the course of diseases and on rituals to avert or counter these influences. 623

KṛṣṇĀTREYA is a problematic figure in the medical tradition, since it is a vexed question whether he is identical with or different from Ātreya Punarvasu. 624 He is not mentioned as a member of the assembly of sages in the opening chapters of the Carakasaṃhitā⁶²⁵ and the Bhāvaprakāśa. The text of the Carakasaṃhitā as it has come down to us in the version by Dṛḍhabala regards Kṛṣṇātreya as identical with Ātreya, the teacher of Agniveśa, in the chapter on the three desires (Sū.11), which is said to be expounded by Ātreya at the beginning, but by Kṛṣṇātreya in the concluding verses. 626 The remaining parts of the Carakasaṃhitā refer to Kṛṣṇātreya in connection with a number of recipes, 627 which conveys the impression that he differs from Ātreya Punarvasu.

Kṛṣṇātreya's name appears a number of times in the *Bhelasaṇhitā*. He is apparently the same as Ātreya in the vātakalākalīya chapter (Sū.16.1); ⁶²⁸ his identity cannot be established with certainty on the other two occasions where his opinion is referred to. ⁶²⁹ The *Aṣṭāngasaṇŋgraha* mentions him on the subject of signs foreboding death (ariṣṭa), ⁶³⁰ and, twice, in verses on technical rules (paribhāṣā) regarding the preparation of medicines. ⁶³¹ Technical rules of Kṛṣṇātreya are also quoted or referred to by Niścalakara. ⁶³²

Numerous quotations from and references to Kṛṣṇātreya prove that he is usually another authority than Ātreya, 633 although regarded as identical by some commentators 634 and quite a number of modern Indian scholars. 635 Some of the latter solve the problems raised by their propositions by assuming that one and the same person was, as Ātreya Punarvasu, the teacher of Agniveśa in the Carakasaṃhitā, and, as Kṛṣṇātreya, the author of a medical treatise. 636 Others refer to Vedavyāsa, who was also called Kṛṣṇādvaipāyana, and suggest that Ātreya may have been known as Kṛṣṇātreya, because he adhered to the Black Yajurveda. 637 The treatise, attributed to Kṛṣṇātreya and profusely quoted, was probably a comprehensive medical textbook, 638 and not, as often supposed on rather slender grounds, 639 a śālākyatantra only. 640 A number of iatrochemical formulae are also ascribed to Kṛṣṇātreya.

Authors and works referring to Kṛṣṇātreya or quoting him are: Anantakumā-ra, 641 Aruṇadatta, 642 the Bāhaṭa, 643 the Bheṣajakalpa, 644 the Brhannighaṇṭuraṭnā-kara, 645 Cakrapāṇidatta, 646 Candraṇandana, 647 Candraṭa, 648 the Carakasaṃhiṭā, 649 Dalhaṇa, 650 Dattātreya, 651 the Dhanvaṇṭari, 652 Govindadāsa, 653 the Hārīṭasaṃhiṭā, 654 Indu, 655 Kṛṣṇaśāṣṭrī Bhāṭavadekar's Rasāyaṇasaṃgraḥa, 656 the Mādhavacikiṭsā, 657

Mādhava Upādhyāya, ⁶⁵⁸ Niścalakara, ⁶⁶⁹ Nityanātha's *Rasaratnākara*, ⁶⁶⁰ the *Rasakāmadhenu*, ⁶⁶¹ the *Rasaratnadīpikā*, ⁶⁶² the *Rasendrac*intāmani, ⁶⁶³ Śārngadhara, ⁶⁶⁴ Śivadāsasena, ⁶⁶⁵ Soḍhala, ⁶⁶⁶ Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, ⁶⁶⁷ Śrīkanthadatta, ⁶⁶⁸ Ṭoḍara, ⁶⁶⁹ Trimalla, ⁶⁷⁰ Vāgbhata, ⁶⁷¹ the *Vaidyacintāmani*, ⁶⁷² Vangasena, ⁶⁷³ and the *Yogaratnākara*. ⁶⁷⁴ Formulae attributed to Kṛṣṇātreya will certainly be found in many more treatises. ⁶⁷⁵

The quotations from and references to Kṛṣṇātreya cover the whole of aṣṭāṅgā-yurveda and not merely a particular branch of it. 676 The treatise that went under his name must have been rather close to the Carakasaṃhitā, 677 but it also differed from it as appears from many references and quotations. 678 Some verses said to derive from Kṛṣṇātreya refer to diseases which are unknown in the classical saṃhitās 679 and thus give evidence of the tendency of giving weight to more recent knowledge by attributing it to ancient sages. This trend explains that even rasayogas are attributed to Kṛṣṇātreya.

It is remarkable that many more formulae are connected with Kṛṣṇātreya than with Ātreya. Kṛṣṇātreya's father, Kṛṣṇātri, is also mentioned in medical treatises. Soḍhala describes a formula that endows one with a memory like that of Kṛṣṇātri. ⁶⁸⁰ Ṭoḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya contains a prescription of Kṛṣṇātri. ⁶⁸¹ Some, basing themselves on purāṇic literature, regard Kṛṣṇātreya as identical with one of the sons of Atri, Durvāsas, who was called Kṛṣṇātreya on account of his swarthy complexion. ⁶⁸² Others refer to Vedic texts in order to prove that Kṛṣṇātreya was a descendant of Atri. ⁶⁸³

KŞĀRAPĀŅI ⁶⁸⁴ was one of the six disciples of Ātreya Punarvasu who composed their own medical treatise (tantra). ⁶⁸⁵ Hemādri mentions him as one of the founders of ā-yurveda in his Lakṣaṇaprakāśa. ⁶⁸⁶

Authors and works quoting from or referring to him are: the Amrtasāgara, ⁶⁸⁷ Anantakumāra, ⁶⁸⁸ Aruṇadatta, ⁶⁸⁹ the commentary on the Āyurvedābdhisāra, ⁶⁹⁰ the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁶⁹¹ Candranandana, ⁶⁹² Candraṭa, ⁶⁹³ Dalhaṇa, ⁶⁹⁴
Jeijaṭa, ⁶⁹⁵ the Kairalī commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāṅgaḥrdayasaṇhitā, ⁶⁹⁶ Nāganātha in his Nidānapradīpa, ⁶⁹⁷ Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana, ⁶⁹⁸
Narasiṃha in his commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, Niścalakara, ⁶⁹⁹ Parameśvara, ⁷⁰⁰ Śivadāsasena, ⁷⁰¹ Sodhala, ⁷⁰² Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, ⁷⁰³ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ⁷⁰⁴ Ṭoḍara, ⁷⁰⁵
Ugrāditya, ⁷⁰⁶ Vācaspati, ⁷⁰⁷ Vijayarakṣita, ⁷⁰⁸ the Yogaratnākara, ⁷⁰⁹ and Yogīndranāthasena. ⁷¹⁰ Kṣārapāṇi is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā. ⁷¹¹

The references to Kṣārapāṇi indicate that his treatise was held in high esteem. Verses of Kṣārapāṇi were incorporated in Cakrapāṇidatta's *Cikitsāsaṃgraha*⁷¹² and Anantakumāra's *Yogaratnasamuccaya*. Formulae attributed to him are: bilvādyaghṛta ⁷¹³ and nīlaghṛta.⁷¹⁴

By far the larger majority of the quotations are in verse.

Subjects covered by the quotations are: weights and measures, ⁷¹⁵ the divisions of time, ⁷¹⁶ the seasons and their importance in medicine, ⁷¹⁷ the physiological transformations of the elements of the body, ⁷¹⁸ rules relating to sleep by day, ⁷¹⁹ definitions of actions of drugs, ⁷²⁰ the properties of medicinal substances, ⁷²¹ the description and treatment of various diseases, ⁷²² recipes, ⁷²³ and pañcakarman. ⁷²⁴

The commentary on the *Āyurvedābdhisāra* refers to a Kṣīrapāṇi who followed the views of Bhaṭṭārahariścandra, Jejjaṭa and Gayadāsa. ⁷²⁵ This late tradition cannot relate to the ancient authority Kṣārapāṇi, who is quoted by Jejjaṭa. The same applies to the Kṣīrapāṇi to whom the *Amrtasāgara* attributes the description of mantharajvara. ⁷²⁶

KUMĀRAŚIRAS BHARADVĀJA⁷²⁷ is an authority found only in the *Carakasannhitā*. There he is one of those taking part in the discussion on vāta (Sū.12.5). On another occasion he expresses as his opinion that five tastes, derived from the five elements, should be distinguished (Sū.26.4 and 8). In the chapter where a number of sages deliberate on the part of the embryo that develops first he regards the head as this part, because of its being the seat of all the sense-organs (Śā.6.21); ⁷²⁸ this view may be responsible for his being called Kumāraśiras. ⁷²⁹ Some are convinced that the Bharadvāja of Ca.Sū.25.20–21 is actually Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja. ⁷³⁰ Bharadvāja and Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja are usually considered to be quite distinct, ⁷³¹ the former being Ātreya's teacher and the latter one of his pupils. Ātreya's divergence of opinion on the number of the tastes and on embryonic development, compared with the views of Kumāraśiras Bharadvāja, implies that the former is the teacher and the latter a pupil. ⁷³²

KUŚA SĀMKŖTYĀYANA ⁷³³ appears once in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, taking part in the deliberations on vāta by enumerating its six qualities (Sū.12.4). ⁷³⁴

KUŚIKA ⁷³⁵ is a member of the assembly of sages described in the opening chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. The Kuśika referred to at Ca.Sū.25.16 is the same as Hiraṇyākṣa, but the first chapter of *Carakasaṃhitā* and *Bhāvaprakāśa* enumerate both Kuśika and Hiraṇyākṣa as attending the meeting of the sages.

LOKĀKṢA or Laugākṣi 736 is one of the sages who meet on the slopes of the Himālayas in the first chapters of the Carakasaṃhitā and Bhāvaprakāṣa. 737

Laugākṣi is known in connection with a gṛḥyasūtra of the Black Yajurveda⁷³⁸ and as one of the expounders of dhaṛṇaṣāṣtra, ⁷³⁹

MAIMATĀYANI⁷⁴⁰ is a name found in the *Carakasaṃhitā* only, as one of the sages assembled on the slopes of the Himālayas. Gaṅgādhara interprets Maimatāyani as an epithet of Maitreya, the sage who precedes him in the list.⁷⁴¹

MAITREYA⁷⁴² belongs to the group of sages described in the first chapters of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and *Bhāvaprakāśa*. He appears again, in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, in a chapter that consists of a dialogue between Ātreya and Maitreya (Sū.10) on the purpose of medical treatment; the points of view of Ātreya and Maitreya are diametrically opposed and Maitreya poses as a sceptic who is doubtful about the benefit of any treatment (Sū.10.4.5 and 23).

The Bhelasanhitā (Sū.12) relates that Maitreya took part in a discussion on the tastes; his own view on the subject is not mentioned. ⁷⁴³

A medical Maitreysamhitā is only known from Kavīndrācārya's library. 744

MĀRĪCA. 745

MARĪCI⁷⁴⁶ is a sage who appears in the chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā* on the merits and demerits of vāta (Sū.12). He takes part in the discussion on this subject, puts a question which is answered by Vāryovida, and expounds his views on the wholesome and unwholesome effects of fire (agni) as an element that is intimately connected with pitta (Sū.12.9–11). ⁷⁴⁷ The first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa* mentions Marīci, instead of the Mārīca of the *Carakasaṃhitā*, as one of the members of the assembly of sages. Pālakāpya's *Hastyāyurveda* records his presence among the sages who want to be instructed in the science of hastyāyurveda.

The Tibetan tradition is acquainted with a female Mar \bar{i} ci, called \underline{H} od-zer-can-ma, as a medical authority. ⁷⁴⁸

Marīci is known as one of the ten Prajāpatis ⁷⁴⁹ and forms part of the group of seven sages (saptarsi). ⁷⁵⁰

Marīci is also quoted as an authority on dharmaśāstra. 751

MĀRKAŅDĒYA⁷⁵² is mentioned as a member of the group of sages described in the first chapters of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and *Bhāvaprakāśa*. In the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* he is the one who regards hands and feet as the parts which develop first in an embryo (Śā.3.32), a view held by Baoiśa in the *Carakasaṃhitā*. The *Hārītasaṃhitā* refers in its parisiṣtādhyāya to a medical *Mārkaṇḍeyasaṃhitā*. A MS of the *Ātreyasaṃhitā*, probably containing some version of the *Hārītasaṃhitā*, mentions in its introductory verses a medical treatise called *Mārkaṇḍi*. ⁷⁵³ Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakāśa* regards him as one of the originators of āyurveda. ⁷⁵⁴ Mārkaṇḍeya is mentioned as a medical author in a *Kāśyapasaṃhitā*. ⁷⁵⁵ The Indian tradition includes him in the list of authors of a lost tantra on kāyacikitsā. ⁷⁵⁶

Mārkaņdeya is the reputed author of a Nādīparīkṣā⁷⁵⁷ and is referred to as an authority on this subject in the Nādīsāstrasaṃgraha.⁷⁵⁸

The Purāṇas tell a story about the way Mārkaṇḍeya acquired eternal youth and a very long life. 759

A recipe found in the Bower MS, ⁷⁶⁰ which enabled Cyavana to regain his youth and lead a life free from decrepitude and disease, made Mārkaṇḍeya attain a very advanced age. Another formula (pañcanimbāvaleha), with a similar aim, is also connected with his name. ⁷⁶¹ The Rasārṇavakalpa (423) mentions that Mārkaṇḍa acquired a long and prosperous life thanks to the use of the juice of the uccaṭā plant.

A recipe ascribed to Mārkaņdeya is also found in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccava. 762

Mārkaṇḍeya is moreover well known as a narrator in the *Mahābhārata* and the *Mārkandeyapurāṇa*. ⁷⁶³

NĀRADA is a member of the group of sages described in the opening chapter of the Carakasaṃhitā. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa.

Nārada is a famous sage, already known in Vedic literature and figuring promi-

nently in the Purāṇas and many other branches of Sanskrit literature. ⁷⁶⁴ Texts connected with his name are the *Nāradapañcarātra*, *Nāradapurāṇa* and *Nāradasmṛti*. ⁷⁶⁵ He is, apart from medicine and dharmaśāstra, associated with other sciences, such as music and dancing, jyotihśāstra, sāmudrika, arthaśāstra, and vāstuśāstra. ⁷⁶⁶ He is also an authority on ratnaśāstra. ⁷⁶⁷ The *Maḥābhārata* describes him as an expert in Nyāya. ⁷⁶⁸

Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakāśa* refers to Nārada as one of the originators of ā-yurveda. ⁷⁶⁹ He is known as a medical authority in the *Milindapañha*. ⁷⁷⁰

The Tibetan medical tradition is acquainted with Nārada under the name of Misbyin-gyi bu.⁷⁷¹

Texts on veterinary medicine mention him as a sage interested in elephantology. The Medical treatises attributed to him are the *Dhātulakṣaṇa* and *Sphoṭikāvaidya*. Medical works associated with his name are the *Akṣiroganirmūlana* and Ālokāmṛta. The Medical works associated with his name are the *Akṣiroganirmūlana*.

Nārada is mentioned in a mantra found in the $Su\acute{s}rutasamhitā$. The is praised in the mangala of the $M\bar{a}dhavanid\bar{a}nas\bar{a}ra$ and $Sarasvat\bar{m}ighamu$.

Quotations from, formulae attributed to, and references to Nārada occur in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya, ⁷⁷⁸ Bhāvamiśra's Bhāvaprakāśa, ⁷⁷⁹ Dattarāma's Bṛ-hadrasarājasundara, ⁷⁸⁰ the Dhanvantari, ⁷⁸¹ Gayadāsa's commentary on the Śārīrasthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā, Gopālakṛṣṇa's Rasendrasārasamgraha, ⁷⁸² Govindadāsa's Bhaiṣajyaratnāvalī, ⁷⁸³ the Kāmaratna, ⁷⁸⁴ Nityanātha's Rasaratnākara, ⁷⁸⁵ Rājīvalocana Dhanvantari's Sidhayogārṇava, ⁷⁸⁶ the Rasaratnadīpikā, ⁷⁸⁷ Rasaratnasamuccaya, ⁷⁸⁸ Rasārṇavakalpa, ⁷⁸⁹ Rasendracintāmani, ⁷⁹⁰ Toḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, ⁷⁹¹ Trimalla's Bṛhadyogatarangiṇī, ⁷⁹² Ugrāditya's Kalyāṇakāraka, ⁷⁹³ Vāgbhaṭa's Aṣṭāṇgasaṃgraha, ⁷⁹⁴ Vaṇgasena's Cikitsāsārasamgraha, ⁷⁹⁵ and the Vīrasimhāvaloka.

Formulae attributed to Nārada, in particular rasayogas, are found in many more treatises.⁷⁹⁷ It is noteworthy that these formulae aim for the greater part at rasāyana and vājīkaraṇa purposes.

NIMI, ⁷⁹⁸ said to be a king of Videha, takes part in the discussion on the number of tastes in the *Carakasaṇhitā* (Sū.26.4 and 8); he proclaims that seven tastes should be distinguished, the six usual ones, and kṣāra, the taste of alkaline fluids. ⁷⁹⁹ In the *Kā-śyapasaṇhitā* (Sū.27.3), Nimi Vaideha represents the view that diseases are of eight types: the seven caused by one, two or three doṣas, and, added to these, a type of exogenous (āgantu) origin. The *Aṣṭāṇgasaṇŋgraha* (Sū.1.4–10) mentions Nimi among the sages who received the āyurveda directly from Indra. Dalhaṇa states (ad Su.Sū.1.3) that he is reckoned by some among the twelve disciples of Dhanvantari. Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakāśa* refers to him as one of the originators of āyurveda. ⁸⁰⁰

Nimi is well known in Indian literature. ⁸⁰¹ According to an interesting tale he abandoned his body, ⁸⁰² and was, in conformity with his desire, placed by the gods in the eyes of all living creatures, in consequence of which their eyes are blinking. ⁸⁰³ Nimi, king of Videha, is also the central figure in one of the Jātakas. ⁸⁰⁴ The medical tradition regards Nimi as an outstanding ophthalmologist. ⁸⁰⁵ Nimi's son, Karāla, specialized in the same branch of medicine as his father. ⁸⁰⁶

. Being a king of Videha, Nimi is frequently referred to as the king of Videha, 807 or,

shortly, Videha. ⁸⁰⁸ Another medical authority, also called the king of Videha, is Janaka, which results in ambiguity when no proper name is added. ⁸⁰⁹ Close study of the quotations from Janaka, Nimi and Videha shows that Nimi and Videha can usually be regarded as identical, Janaka being meant only sporadically. A number of quotations and references are indiscriminately attributed to Nimi or Videha and differences of opinion between them do not occur. G. Mukhopadhyaya's suggestion ⁸¹⁰ that Janaka, Nimi and Videha may be identical, since Janaka was a family name employed by several kings of Videha, is not supported by evidence. On the contrary, Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakā-śa* enumerates both Janaka and Nimi among the originators of āyurveda. An unsolved problem is that Videha is said to be Janaka's son in Candraṭa's commentary on the Cikitsākalikā. ⁸¹¹ whereas the reverse is found in the purānic stories. ⁸¹²

The Indian tradition regards Nimi, (king of) Videha, as the author of a treatise on śālākya and in particular as an authority on eye diseases. ⁸¹³ The lists of authors of a lost śālākyatantra record, however, treatises on the subject by Nimi and Videha, ⁸¹⁴ which can only be explained by assuming that the latter is thought to be the same as Janaka. ⁸¹⁵

The title of the treatise by Nimi/Videha may have been Catuhsasti. 816

The quotations from and references to Nimi/Videha indicate that his work, 817 written in verse, 818 dealt in particular with the whole range of diseases belonging to the division of āyurveda called śālākya, and show that its author was held in high esteem as an oculist. 819 The evidence available reveals that it may have been similar to the Suśrutasaṃhitā in covering many aspects of medicine, but with an emphasis on śālākya, in the same was as the Suśrutasaṃhitā emphasizes śalya. A not inconsiderable number of quotations are concerned with general aspects of medicine, technical rules relating to the preparation of medicines, the properties of drugs, and diseases outside the range of śālākya. Works quoted as Mahāvideha and Rājavaidehīya do not show features that differentiate them from Nimi/Videha and his treatise. The quotations from Vrddhavideha by Anantakumāra deal with diseases belonging to kāyacikitsā and kaumārabhrtya.

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Nimi are: Read Adhamalla, Alanadatta, Read the Bower MS, Read Candrata, Read Dalhana, Read the Kairalī commentary on the Aṣtāngahṛdayasamhitā, Read Kairalī commentary on the Aṣtāngahṛdayasamhitā, Read Kairalī commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, Narasimha in his commentary on the Rasavaisesikasūtra, Read Niścalakara, Read Parameśvara, Read the Sahasrayoga, Read Sivadāsasena, Read Somadeva in his Yaśastilaka, Read and the Yogaratnākara, Read Nimi is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā.

Videha is mentioned in the Suśrutasarnhitā⁸⁴³ and in Vāgbhaṭa's works.⁸⁴⁴

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Videha⁸⁴⁵ are: Ādhamalla,⁸⁴⁶ Anantakumāra,⁸⁴⁷ the *Āyurvedābdhisāra* and its commentary,⁸⁴⁸ Bhāvamiśra,⁸⁴⁹ Binod Lal Sen,⁸⁵⁰ Cakrapāṇidatta,⁸⁵¹ Candraṭa,⁸⁵² Dalhaṇa,⁸⁵³ Gadādhara,⁸⁵⁴ Gaṅgādhara,⁸⁵⁵ Gayadāsa,⁸⁵⁶ Hemādri,⁸⁵⁷ Jejjaṭa,⁸⁵⁸ Nāganātha in his *Nidānapradīpa*, Narasiṃha in his commentary on the *Mādhavanidāna*, Niścalakara,⁸⁵⁹ Satyadeva Vāsiṣṭḥa,⁸⁶⁰ Śivadāsasena,⁸⁶¹ Soḍhala,⁸⁶² Śrīkaṇṭhadatta,⁸⁶³ Tīsaṭa,⁸⁶⁴ Toḍara,⁸⁶⁵

Trimalla, ⁸⁶⁶ Vācaspati, ⁸⁶⁷ Vangasena, ⁸⁶⁸ Vijayarakṣita, ⁸⁶⁹ and the Yogaratnākara. ⁸⁷⁰ Videha is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā. ⁸⁷¹

Some quotations are ascribed to Nimi in one source, to Videha in another. 872

Vaideha is mentioned in a gloss on the Bhāvaprakāśa, ⁸⁷³ by Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁸⁷⁴ the Kairalī commentary on the Aṣṭāṇgahṛdayasaṃhitā, ⁸⁷⁵ the Mādhavadṛavyaguṇa, ⁸⁷⁶ the Rasakāmadhenu, ⁸⁷⁷ and by Vangasena, ⁸⁷⁸ Treatises called Vaidehīya and Rājavaidehīya, as well as a work called Vṛddhavideha, are quoted by Anantakumāra. ⁸⁷⁹ The Vaidehīya is also quoted in the Bhesajjamañjūsäsannaya. Vṛddhavideha is cited by Candrata and Niścala, ⁸⁸⁰ Mahāvideha by Śrīkanthadatta. ⁸⁸¹

An authority called Buddhavaideha is quoted in the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya.

A Vaidehasaṃhitā by Skandarakṣita is quoted by Indu in his commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya. 882 An identical quotation, said to be from the Vaidehīsaṃhitā, is found in his Śaśilekhā on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha 883 and in Śrīdāsa's Hṛdayabodhikā. 884

Videha's work was one of the sources of Cakrapānidatta's Cikitsāsamgraha. 885

Remarkable features of the quotations are: some quotations are common to Videha and Cakṣuṣyeṇa (or Cakṣuṣya); 886 another one consists of a verse found in the Carakasaṇṇhitā; 887 Nala is referred to as an earlier authority; 888 Gayadāsa is said to agree with Videha, 889 as well as Sātyaki; 890 one quotation is common to Videha and Gadādhara; 891 the latter was acquainted with Videha's treatise; 892 Brahmadeva was also acquainted with Videha's work. 893

Contributions of Nimi/Videha to medicine are: the view that vāyu is one, but has five different names according to its seat and actions; 894 the description of a type of unmāda caused by a brahmarākṣasa; 895 the enumeration of seventy-six eye diseases 896 and sixty-four diseases of mouth and throat; 897 the description of a type of sarvasara (a disease of the whole oral cavity) caused by blood and called mukhapāka; 898 specification of the doṣas involved in a particular disease; 899 the recognition of blood as a causative factor on an equal footing with the doṣas; 900 the statement that baldness (khaliti) does not occur in women; 901 the enumeration of the complications of karṇaśūla; 902 a different aetiology of apīnasa; 903 the enumeration of the nose; 906 the description of a second type of hatādhimantha, called akṣiśoṣa; 906 the use of the term pilla as a synonym of aklinnavartman; 907 the description of nimeṣa 908 and raktārsas 909 as incurable diseases; the description of sūryāvartaviparyaya as a variety of sūryāvarta 916 and of anantavāta as a disease of the head; 911 the description of amlapitta as a distinct nosological entity, identical with sītapitta. 912

PAINGI⁹¹³ is one of the sages taking part in the meeting described at the beginning of the *Carakasamhitā*. He is not mentioned in the corresponding description of this assembly in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*.

PARĀŚARA ⁹¹⁴ is one of Ātreya's six disciples who wrote a medical treatise (tantra), based on Ātreya's teachings (Ca.Sū.1.30–35). A number of medical texts and commentaries mention his forming part of this group of authors. ⁹¹⁵ The venerable status

of Parāśara appears from the rather frequent occurrence of his name when series of ancient authorities are enumerated. 916 The Bower MS (I.8) refers to him as a member of a group of sages interested in medicinal plants. Hemādri considers him to be one of the eighteen originators of āyurveda. 917 The Bṛḥannighaṇṭuratnākara refers to him as one of the authors of an āyurvedic saṃhitā. 918 A MS of the Ātreyasaṃhitā, probably containing some version of the Hārītasaṃhitā, mentions a medical treatise called Parāśarī. 919

Parāśara represents the view that the heart is the first part of the embryo to develop 926 in the Bhelasamhitā (Śā.4.30), whereas the Suśrutasamhitā (Śā.3.32) states that this part is the navel according to Pārāśarya. 921 The Kāśyapasamhitā shows Pārāśarya as taking part in discussions on the application of clysters in the treatment of children (Si.1) and on the various dosages of an emetic (Si.3). Parāśara is mentioned as a medical author in a Kāśyapasamhitā. 922

The Tibetan tradition is also acquainted with Parāśara as a medical authority, called Rćibs-logs skyes ⁹²³ or Rćibs-sogs skyes. ⁹²⁴

Parāśara's name is also met with in connection with veterinary medicine, agriculture, vāstuśāstra, astronomy-astrology, omina, 925 dharmaśāstra, and arthaśāstra. 926 In Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda (I.1) he is one of the sages at Romapāda's court who are eager to be instructed in elephantology. Varāhamihira mentions him on diverse subjects in his Bṛhatsaṃhitā and Bṛhajjātaka. 927 The commentator on the Bṛhatsaṃhitā, Bhaṭṭotpala, quotes him profusely, amongst other things on the characteristics of cattle, horses, and elephants. 928 Bhoja's Yuktikalpataru cites him in its sections on vāstuśāstra and horses. 929

A manual of husbandry, called *Kṛṣipaddhati*, ⁹³⁰ and one on horticulture, ⁹³¹ are ascribed to Parāśara, as well as works on astronomy-astrology ⁹³² and a smṛti. ⁹³³ The *Arthaśāstra* mentions the Pārāśaras, a school that followed Parāśara's views. ⁹³⁴ Pāṇini attributes a *Bhiksusūtra* to Pārāśarya. ⁹³⁵

Parāśara is well known from Vedic literature, the epics, the Purāṇas, etc. ⁹³⁶ According to the *Nirukta* he was a son of Vasiṣṭha, but the *Mahābhārata* and *Viṣṇupurāṇa* make him his grandson. ⁹³⁷ His son, Kṛṣṇadvaipāyana Vyāsa is sometimes called Pārāśarya. ⁹³⁸

A medical treatise ascribed to Parāśara is a *Takravidhi*, also called *Takrakalpa*. 939 Authors and works quoting from or referring to Parāśara. 44 are: Ādhamalla, 941 Ananta in his *Pratāpakalpadruma*, Anantakumāra, 942 Aruṇadatta, 943 the commentary on the *Āyurvedābdhisāra*, 944 the *Basavarājīya*, 945 Bhoja, 946 Cakrapāṇidatta, 947 Candrata, 948 Dalhaṇa, 949 Dattarāma in the *Bṛhannighaṇturatnākara*, 950 Dhanvantari's *Cikitsākalikā*, Gaṇgādhara, 951 Gopāladāsa in his *Cikitsāmṛta*, the *Haṃsarājanidāna*, Hārāṇacandra, 952 Hemādri, 953 the *Hāṇītasarnhitā*, 954 Indu, 955 Jayaratna in his *Varaparājaya*, Jejjata, 956 Jīvānanda Vidyāsāgara, 957 the *Jvaracikitsita*, Kaiyadeva, 958 Kaṇāda in his *Nādīvijīṇāna*, Lakṣmaṇa Paṇḍita in his *Yogacandrikā*, Mādhava in his *Mādhavadravyaguṇa*, 959 Māṇikyacandra's *Rasāvatāra*, 960 Moreśvara, 961 Narahari in his *Vāgbhatamaṇḍana*, 962 Nārāyaṇabhūṇati's *Nārāyaṇavilāsa*, 963 Nīlamegha, 964 Niścalakara, 965 Raghunāthaprasāda, 966 Śaṃkara, 967 Śivadāsasena, 968 Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, 969 Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, 971 Toḍara, 972 Ugrāditya, 973 Vācaspati, 974 Vāgbha-

ta, 975 the Vaidyacintāmani, 976 Vijayaraksita, 977 and Vrnda, 978

Vrddhaparāśara is quoted in the Āyurvedābdhisāra 979 and Vīrasimhāvaloka. 980

The quotations show that Parāśara's tantra dealt with many aspects of medicine: basic principles, dravyaguna, ⁹⁸¹ embryology and anatomy, the aetiology, symptomatology and therapy of diseases belonging to the division of kāyacikitsā, and pañcakarınan.

Contributions of Parāśara to medicine are: a definition of the term pūrvarūpa (prodrome); ⁹⁸² the view that one day is required for the transformation of a dhātu into the next one of the series; ⁹⁸³ a definition of ojas; ⁹⁸⁴ an aberrant view of vipāka; ⁹⁸⁵ the statement that the hairs of the human body are three koṭi and a half in number; ⁹⁸⁶ statements about the development of the foetus; ⁹⁸⁷ a description of the fever called caturthakaviparyaya; ⁹⁸⁸ a description of the disease called pravāhikā, its designation as antargranthi, and a reference to another authority (i.e., Hārīta, who calls it niścāraka); ⁹⁸⁹ a statement about the quantity of a nirūha clyster to be given to particular patients. ⁹⁹⁶

PĀRĪKṢI⁹⁹¹ is one of the sages enumerated in the first chapter of the Carakasaṃhitā. The corresponding part of the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa calls him Parīkṣaka. He takes part in the discussion on the origin of the individual and his diseases in the Carakasaṃhitā (Sū.25.8-9). Gangādhara⁹⁹² regards Pārīkṣi as a son of Ātreya, G. Hāldār⁹⁹³ as the king of a city called Āsīndavant. Pūrṇākṣa Maudgalya, mentioned in another chapter of the Carakasaṃhitā, may or may not be the same as Pārīkṣi Maudgalya,⁹⁹⁴

PULASTYA ⁹⁹⁵ is a member of the group of sages described at the beginning of the Carakasaṛnhitā. His name is found in the same context in the first chapter of the Bhā-vaprakāśa. The Carakasaṛnhitā mentions him again as one of the sages who go to Indra for help when their health has declined (Ci.1⁴.3). Pulastya is met with a third time in the Carakasaṇihitā when a number of sages dicuss which fruit is the best for use in a non-oleaginous enema (āsthāpana), but his own opinion on this issue is not recorded (Si.11.3--4).

Pulastya is referred to in Pālakāpya's Hastyāyurveda as one of the sages assembled at Romapāda's court who want to be instructed in elephantology.

Pulastya is known as a medical authority in the Tibetan tradition. 996

The Tamil medical tradition regards him as one of the eighteen Siddhas. 997

Pulastya is one of the Prajāpatis (*Manusnirti* 1.33–34) and one of the seven sages; he is well known in the epics and Purāṇas. ⁹⁹⁸ He is said to be one of the originators of astronomy-astrology. ⁹⁹⁹ The *Śivatattvaratnākara* refers to him on the subject of averting strokes of lightning. ¹⁰⁰⁰ Verses from a *Pulastyasmṛti* are quoted in works on dharmaśāstra. ¹⁰⁰¹ One such verse is found in Yogīndranāthasena's commentary on the *Carakasaṇhitā*. ¹⁰⁰²

PŪRŅĀKŚA MAUDGALYA ¹⁰⁰³ is in the Carakasaṃhitā one of the sages who, meeting in the Caitraratha forest, deliberate on the number of tastes. In this discussion he brings forward that three tastes should be distinguished, namely eliminating (chedanī-

ya), pacifying (upaśamanīya), and intermediate between the two (sādhāraṇa) (Sū.26.3 and 8). 1004 In this way he adds one taste, the intermediate one, to the two recognized by Śākunteya. Pūrṇākṣa Maudgalya is sometimes considered to be the same as Pārīkṣi Maudgalya. 1005

ŚĀKUNEYA ¹⁰⁰⁶ is one of the sages of the assembly described at the beginning of the Carakasamhitā. He is also mentioned in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa, ¹⁰⁰⁷

ŚĀKUNTEYA ¹⁰⁰⁸ is a brāhmaņa who takes part in the discussion of the *Carakasaṃhitā* on the number of tastes. According to his view, two tastes should be distinguished, an eliminating (chedanīya) and a pacifying one (upaśamanīya) (Ca.Sū.26.3 and 8). ¹⁰⁰⁹

SĀMKHYA 1010 is a sage taking part in the meeting described at the beginning of the Carakasamhitā. He is also mentioned in the corresponding part of the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa Gangādhara regards Sāṃkhya as an epithet of Gautama, who precedes Sāṃkhya in the list, claiming that this epithet distinguishes this Gautama from the founder of Buddhism. 1011

SĀMKŖTYA ¹⁰¹² forms part of the group of sages mentioned in the first chapter of the Carakasamhitā. He is referred to in the same context in the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa.

ŚĀṇṇILYA ¹⁰¹³ is a member of the group of sages described in the first chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. He is also mentioned in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. Hemādri describes him in his *Laksanaprakāśa* as one of the originators of āyurveda. ¹⁰¹⁴

Śāṇḍilya is the name of an authority known from Vedic literature. His name is also connected with the Pāñcarātra-system and he is the reputed author of the *Bhaktisūtra*. 1015

The formula of śańkhacūrna is ascribed to Śāndilya. 1016

ŚARALOMAN 1017 takes part in the meeting of sages described in the first chapter of the Carakasamhitā. He is also mentioned in the corresponding part of the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa. In the chapter of the Carakasamhitā on the origin of the individual he expresses the view that the mind (manas), or sattva, full of rajas and tamas, is at the origin of one's body and its diseases (Sū.25.10).

ŚARKARĀKŞA ¹⁰¹⁸ is present at the meeting of sages described in the first chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. He is absent from the list in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. Someone called Jana Śārkarāksya is mentioned in the *Chāndog yopanisad* (5.11.1).

ŚAUNAKA: see Bhadraśaunaka.

VAIJAVĀPI ¹⁰¹⁹ is a member of the assembly of sages described in the first chapter of the *Carakasamhitā*. His name is Vaijavāpa in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. A Vaijavāpagrhyasūra is known from quotations. ¹⁰²⁰

VĀMADEVA ¹⁰²¹ is a sage present at the assembly described in the first chapter of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. His name is found in the same context in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. The *Carakasaṃhitā* mentions him again as one of the sages who approach Indra for relief when their health has declined (Ci.1⁴.3). Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakāśa* refers to Vāmadeva as one of the originators of āyurveda. ¹⁰²²

Vāmadeva is known from Vedic literature, dharmaśāstra, 1023 the epics, and the Purānas. 1024

Vāmadeva is quoted as a commentator in the *Kairalī* commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the *Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā* ¹⁰²⁵ and in Śrīdāsapaṇ**d**ita's commentary on that work. ¹⁰²⁶

A formula attributed to Vāmadeva is found in Sodhala's Gadanigraha. 1027

VĀMAKA ¹⁰²⁸ appears twice in the *Carakasaṃhitā*. He initiates the discussion on the origin of the individual (Sū.25.3-7) and asks Ātreya in the same chapter which are the causes of a person's growth when healthy, and decline when suffering from disease (Sū.25.30). In both passages he is said to be a king of Kāśi.

Vāmaka also takes part in the deliberations on the choice of the best fruit for use in a non-oleaginous enema and says that in his opinion kaṭutumba¹⁰²⁹ should be chosen. G. Hāldārregards Vāmaka as a forefather of Divodāsa Dhanvantari and as the author of the *Cikitsākaumudī*. ¹⁰³⁰ P. Cordier mentions that Vāmaka, together with Bharadvāja, is referred to in the *Mahāvagga*. ¹⁰³¹

 $V\bar{A}RK\bar{S}I^{1032}$ is a member of the group of sages described in the first chapter of the Carakasamhitā. His name is not found in the corresponding list of the first chapter of the Bhāvaprakāśa.

VĀRYOVIDA ¹⁰³³ appears on three occasions in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, where he is called a royal sage or king. As a participant in the discussion on vāta, he describes its actions, when vitiated and not vitiated, inside and outside the body, and the relevance of this knowledge to medicine (Sū.12.8–10). ¹⁰³⁴ He is present when a number of sages deliberate on the origin of the individual and his diseases; contradicting Śaraloman, he expresses as his opinion that living beings and their disorders are the product of rasa, because the element water as the cause of its manifestation is endowed with rasa (Sū. 25.12–13). He is also a member of the group of sages who, assembled in the Caitraratha forest, converse about the number of tastes (Sū.26.3–7); Vāryovida is convinced that six tastes should be distinguished (Sū.26.8): heavy (guru), light (laghu), cold (šīta), hot (usna), oleaginous (snigdha), and dry (rūksa).

Vāryovida is known to the Kāśyapasaṃhitā as well. He is said to recognize two chief categories of disease (Sū.27.3): endogenous (nija) and exogenous (āgantu). He gives his view in the chapter on the treatment of children by means of emetics and purgatives (Si.3), but the pertinent passage has not been preserved. The chapter on the treatment of kukkuṇaka and other children's diseases (Khi.13) consists of teachings by Kaśyapa to king Vāryovida. The same applies to the chapter on the treatment of pregnant women (antarvatnīcikitsā) where, to be sure, he is not mentioned by name,

but a king is addressed who cannot be but Vāryovida. ¹⁰³⁵ The last chapter of the Kā-śyapasaṃhitā (Khi.25: deśasātmyādhyāya) consists of an exposition by a king of Kā-śi, who must be Vāryovida again; answering a question put by Kaśyapa, he describes which kinds of foods are suitable to the inhabitants of particular countries.

VASIŞŢHA ¹⁰³⁶ is a member of the group of sages described in the first chapter of the *Carakasamhitā*. He is mentioned in the same context in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*, and, in a comparable situation, in the Bower MS (I.8). The *Carakasaṃhitā* refers to him as one of the sages who became free from disease and decrepitude through the use of a particular rasāyana (Ci.1³.4–6); he also belongs to those who approached Indra for help in improving their declined health (Ci.1⁴.3). The *Kāśyapasaṃhitā* (Vi.1) relates that Indra bestowed the āyurveda on Kaśyapa, Vasiṣtha, Atri, and Bhṛgu. The *Suśrutasaṃhitā* (Ka.8.90–93) and *Aṣtāṅgasaṃgraha* (U.44.2) refer to the story about the enmity between Vasiṣtha and Viśvāmitra, tracing the origin of spiders (lūtā) to drops of sweat that fell from the forehead of the infuriated Vasiṣtha.

Hemādri's Lakṣaṇaprakāśa mentions Vasiṣtha as one of the originators of ā-yurveda. ¹⁰³⁷ An unspecified Kāśyapasaṇhitā considers him to belong to a group of eight ancient medical authors. ¹⁰³⁸ The Indian tradition regards him as the author of a lost rasāyanatantra. ¹⁰³⁹ A medical text, called Vasiṣṭhakalpa, is known from the list of Kavīndrācārya's books. ¹⁰⁴⁰ Vaśiṣṭha is the pupil of the alchemist Māṇḍavya in the Rasendramangala. An anonymous medical text, called Rudantikalpa, is in the form of a dialogue between Vasiṣṭha and Agastya.

The Tibetan tradition is acquainted with Vasistha as a medical authority. 1041

Pālakāpya's *Hastyāyurveda* knows Vasiṣṭha as one of the sages who were eager to be instructed in the science of elephantology (I.1); the same treatise states that Vasiṣṭha protected animals from poison (II.11.23).

Vasistha is well known in Indian literature. ¹⁰⁴² Many Vedic hymns are ascribed to him ¹⁰⁴³ and numerous stories are found in the epics and the Purāṇas. Vasiṣtha is counted as one of the seven brahmarṣis ¹⁰⁴⁴ and one of the ten Prajāpatis. ¹⁰⁴⁵ He also figures in texts on Yoga ¹⁰⁴⁶ and in Tantric literature. ¹⁰⁴⁷

Sciences with which Vasiṣṭha's name is associated, apart from medicine, are dharmaśāstra, ¹⁰⁴⁸ jyotisa, ¹⁰⁴⁹ vāstuśāstra, ¹⁰⁵⁰ and dhanurveda. ¹⁰⁵¹

Vasistha is quoted or referred to, apart from the works already mentioned, in the commentary on the Āyurvedābdhisāra, 1052 Bindu's Rasapaddhati, 1053 Hārāṇacandra's commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, 1054 Kapilamiśra's Nāḍīprabodhana, Lakṣmīrāma's commentary on the Siddhabheṣajamaṇimālā, 1055 the Nāḍīśāstrasaṃgraha, 1056 Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā, 1057 the Rasaratnadīpikā, 1058 Rasendracintāmaṇi, 1059 Rasendramangala, Ratnākarauṣadhayograntha, Revaṇasiddha's Vīrabhaṭṭīya, Soḍhala's Gadanigraha, 1060 the Tāmbūlakalpasaṃgraha, Ṭoḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, 1061 Trimalla's Bṛhadyogataraṅgiṇī, 1062 Vāgbhaṭa's works, 1063 the Vaidyacintāmaṇi, 1064 and Vaṅgasena's Cikitsāsārasaṃgraha. 1065 A work called Vṛddhavasiṣṭha is quoted in the Tāmbūlakalpasaṃgraha.

The quotations show that Vasiṣṭha's work was not restricted to the subject of rasā-yana.

VIDEHA: see Nimi.

VIŚVĀMITRA ¹⁰⁶⁶ is one of the members of the assembly of sages described in the first chapter of the *Carakasanhitā*. He is referred to in the same context in the first chapter of the *Bhāvaprakāśa*. The *Suśrutasanhitā* mentions him on two occasions (Ci.2.3; U. 66.3–4ab) as the father of Suśruta; the latter is also called Vaiśvāmitra (U.18.3) and the son of the brahmarşi, i.e., Viśvāmitra (Ni.7.3). ¹⁰⁶⁷ The *Suśrutasanhitā* also alludes to the well-known quarrel between Vasiṣtha and Viśvāmitra (Ka.8.90–93), ¹⁰⁶⁸ known to the *Aṣṭāngasangraha* too (U.44.2). A medical treatise, called *Vaiśvāmitrī*, is mentioned in the introductory verses of a MS of the *Ātreyasamhitā*. ¹⁰⁶⁹

Hemādri's *Lakṣaṇaprakāśa* regards Viśvāmitra as one of the originators of āyurveda. ¹⁰⁷⁰ The Indian tradition considers Viśvāmitra to be one of the authors of a lost tantra on kāyacikitsā. ¹⁰⁷¹ Pālakāpya's *Hastyāyurveda* (I.1) relates that Viśvāmitra was among the sages at Romapāda's court who were desirous of being instructed in elephantology.

Besides medicine, Viśvāmitra's name is associated with dharmaśāstra 1072 and dhanurveda. 1073

Viśvāmitra is well known in Vedic literature, the epics, the Purāṇas, etc. ¹⁰⁷⁴ ●ne of the verses of a Vedic hymn, said to be curative of all diseases (RV 10.137), is ascribed to Visvāmitra. ¹⁰⁷⁵ Gayadāsa and Dalhaṇa, two commentators on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, refer to the story that Viśvāmitra, who was a kṣatriya by birth, acquired the status of a brāhmaṇa by means of his austerities. ¹⁰⁷⁶ Dalhaṇa calls him king of Gādhi, ¹⁰⁷⁷ although, in later sources, he is usually said to be a son of Gādhi, king of Kāṇyakubia. ¹⁰⁷⁸

Some Indian authors distinguish a number of different Viśvāmitras. Their number is three according to Gaṇanāthasena: (1) the Viśvāmitra of the Rāmāyaṇa, who lived in the Tretāyuga; (2) the one of the Mahābhārata, mentioned in the story about Hariścandra; this Viśvāmitra was the father of Suśruta and figures in the Carakasamhitā; he lived in the Dvāparayuga; (3) the medical authority Viśvāmitra. 1079

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Viśvāmitra are: ¹⁰⁸⁰ the Arkaprakā-śa, ¹⁰⁸¹ Āyurvedābdhisāra, Bhāvaprakāśa, ¹⁰⁸² the Bower MS, ¹⁰⁸³ Cakrapāṇidatta, ¹⁰⁸⁴ Candrata, ¹⁰⁸⁵ Dalhaṇa, ¹⁰⁸⁶ Gayadāsa, ¹⁰⁸⁷ Gulrā jśarmamiśra in his Višikhānupraveśa-vijñāna, Hemādri, ¹⁰⁸⁸ Indu, ¹⁰⁸⁹ Jñānacandra, ¹⁰⁹⁰ the Kāmaratna, ¹⁰⁹¹ Niścalakara, ¹⁰⁹² Nityanātha's Rasaratnākara, ¹⁰⁹³ the Paribhāṣāpradīpa, the Rasakāmadhenu, ¹⁰⁹⁴ Śivadāsasena, ¹⁰⁹⁵ Śrīdāsapaṇdita, ¹⁰⁹⁶ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ¹⁰⁹⁷ Toḍara, ¹⁰⁹⁸ Ugrāditya, ¹⁰⁹⁹ Vaṇgasena, ¹¹⁰⁰ and the Yogaratnākara. ¹¹⁰¹

The quotations show that Viśvāmitra's work dealt with many aspects of medicine.

Chapter 15 Commentaries on the Carakasamhitā

AGNIVEŚA¹ is credited with a commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā* by C.G. Kashikar.² This claim is very implausible.

AMARAKARA is regarded as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā by P. Cordier. 3

AMITAPRABHA⁴ wrote a commentary, called *Carakanyāsa*, ⁵ on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. Niścalakara quotes in his *Ratnaprabhā* on the *Cakradatta* from Amitaprabha's *Carakanyāsa*, which, as appears from one of the quoted passages, ⁶ covered the whole of the *Carakasaṃhitā* as redacted by Dṛḍhabala. Amitaprabha refers to predecessors (pūrvācāryāḥ) and to particular schools of interpretation of the *Carakasaṃhitā*, such as the Dākṣiṇātyas (the Southerners), Maitreyas, Paitāmahas, Udīcyas (the Northerners), Vaisnavas, and the followers of Vīravarman.⁷

Some quotations from Amitaprabha in Niścalakara's *Ratnaprabhā*, not explicitly said to be from the *Carakanyāsa*, are probably from this commentary.⁸

A Carakanyāsa, which is either Bhattārahariścandra's or Amitaprabha's commentary, is cited in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya. 9

Amitaprabha also wrote a metrical treatise on therapy, used by Cakrapāṇidatta as one of his sources in compiling the Cakradatta. ¹⁰

Dalhaṇa refers to a commentator (ṭīkākāra) Amitaprabha, who may be the author of the Carakanyāsa. 11 Amitaprabha/Amṛtaprabha is among the sources of Candraṭa's Yogaratnasamuccaya. Gopāladāsa quotes him in his Cikitsāmṛta. An Amita- or Amṛtaprabhīya is cited in the Bhesaij amañjūsāsannaya.

Many quotations from the *Amitaprabhīya* are found in Anantakumāra's *Yogaratnasamuccaya*. ¹² The *Amṛtaprabhīya*, also used by Anantakumāra, ¹³ is identical with the *Amitaprabhīya*, because one quotation from the former work is also found in the *Cakradatta* and attributed to Amitaprabha by Niścala. ¹⁴

Niścala mentions, apart from the Carakanyāsa, one work of Amitaprabha by name, namely the Cikitsātiśaya. The quotations prove that it was a treatise in verse. 15

A Yogaśataka, as well as a commentary on the Yogaśataka ascribed to Nāgārjuna, are also recorded as works of Amitaprabha or Amṛtaprabha. ¹⁶

Niścala, who mentions in one place three authorities, namely Drdhabala, Amitaprabha, and Jejjata, ¹⁷ may have placed them in chronological order. ¹⁸ However that may be, Amitaprabha is in any case later than Drdhabala, because he commented on Drdhabala's version of the Carakasambitā and is said to agree with him by Niścala;

he is anterior to Vmda, who incorporated verses from Amitaprabha's work in his Siddhayoga, and Candrata, who quotes him. 19

ANGIRI 20 is a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, quoted by Cakrapāṇidatta in his $\bar{A}yurvedad\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}$ (ad Ca.Si.1.20–22ab).

Angiri is an early commentator, 21 sometimes assigned to the tenth century. 22

ARUNADATTA 23 is sometimes regarded as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā. 24

 \bar{A} Ş \bar{A} DHAVARMAN 25 is a commentator, quoted by Jejjaṭa, 26 Cakrapāṇidatta in his \bar{A} yurvedad \bar{i} pik \bar{a} , 27 Niścalakara, 28 and Vijayarakṣita. 29 These quotations indicate that he commented on the whole of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. 30 The name of his commentary was probably *Parihāravārttika*. 31

Āṣādhavarman is placed in the eighth ³² or ninth century, ³³ but is probably earlier on account of the date of Jejjata, who quotes him.

BAKULA, also called Bakulakara, Bakulamiśra,³⁴ and Vakula,³⁵ wrote one or more commentaries and a medical work in verse.

He is quoted or referred to in the *Bṛhannighaṇṭuratnākara*, ³⁶ by Gopāladāsa in his *Cikitsāmṛta*, Niścalakara, ³⁷ Śivadāsasena, ³⁸ Śrikaṇṭhadatta, ³⁹ Vācaspati, ⁴⁰ and Vijayaraksita, ⁴¹

Bakula wrote a commentary 42 on the Carakasaṃhitā 43 and probably also one on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. 44

A work in verse by Bakula is quoted by Niścala⁴⁵ and Śrīkanthadatta.⁴⁶ Niścala also mentions treatises by Bakula, called *Bakulatantra*⁴⁷ and *Sāroccaya*.⁴⁸

The quotations from Bakula(kara) indicate that he is later than Jejjaṭa, ⁴⁹ Gadā-dhara, ⁵⁰ Kārttikakuṇḍa, ⁵¹ Govardhana, ⁵² the Candrikākāra, ⁵³ Vṛnda, ⁵⁴ Naradeva, ⁵⁵ and Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁵⁶ while Bakula is earlier than Vijayarakṣita and Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, who quote him.

Bakula may therefore have been either a contemporary of Cakrapāṇidatta or of a somewhat later date. 57

D.Ch. Bhattacharyya and G. Hāldār regard him as a Bengali and assign him to the eleventh century. ⁵⁸ A. Pandey and K. Raghunathan regard the ending –kara of Bakulakara's name as evidence supporting the view that he was a Bengali; these authors place him in the period between the first half of the eleventh and the first half of the twelfth century. ⁵⁹ B. Tripāthī refers to him as a commentator of the thirteenth century. ⁶⁰

Niścala bestows some flowery laudatory epithets on Bakula; he is called anavadyavaidya, vividhavidvadvindāraka, and mahopādhyāya. D.Ch. Bhattacharyya⁶¹ supposed Bakula to have been a close connection of Niścala, may be his own uncle (pitrjyeṣṭha), who is once mentioned in the *Ratnaprabhā*; ⁶² P.V. Sharma regards this as very unlikely, on account of the gap of time between Bakula and Niścala. ⁶³

BHADRAVARMAN⁶⁴ is by some scholars regarded as a commentator on the *Caraka-ṣaṃhit*ā. ⁶⁵ He is quoted by Anantakumāra, ⁶⁶ Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁶⁷ Candraṭa, ⁶⁸ and Niśca-

lakara.69

Bhadravarman's work was one of the sources of Cakrapāṇi's *Cikitsāsangraha*. ⁷⁰ Vṛnda was already acquainted with Bhadravarman's treatise, as shown by verses that the *Siddhayoga* and *Cakradatta* have in common. ⁷¹

P.V. Sharma regards Bhadravarman as belonging to the ninth century, ⁷² probably because Candrata borrowed from him.

BHĀSADATTA ⁷³ is quoted by Cakrapāṇidatta (ad Ca.Ci.3.216–217) ⁷⁴ as an early commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. P.V. Sharma is of the opinion that he belongs to the tenth century; ⁷⁵ B. Tripāthī assigns him to the eleventh century. ⁷⁶

BHAVYADATTA 77 was a commentator on the Carakasamhitā according to P.V. Sharma. 78

Bhavya(datta) is quoted by Gopāladāsa in his Cikitsāmṛta, Niścalakara, 79 and Śivadāsasena 80

Some quotations may be from a commentary, but not clearly from a commentary on the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$.

Works by Bhavya(datta), mentioned by Niścala, arethe Vaidyapradīpa, als● called Vaidyakapradīpasamgraha and Bhavyadattasamgraha, and the Yogaratnākara. 82

Bhavyadatta's Vaidyapradī pa was esteemed by Niścala, who calls its author a prāmānikāgranī. 83 The author of the Yogaratnākara is referred to as a vidyāmahāvrata. 84

Bhavyadatta's Vaidyapradī pa bases its text more than once on the works of Vāgbhata. 85 Niścala rather often mentions Bhavya(datta) in the company of Bakula.

P.V. Sharma assigns Bhavyadatta to the twelfth, 86 G. Hāldār to the eleventh century. 87

BHĪMADANTA ⁸⁸ was a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, as appears from a quotation in Cakrapāṇidatta's *Āyurvedadīpikā* (ad Ca.Ci.10.53).

The $Vy\bar{a}khy\bar{a}kusum\bar{a}val\bar{\imath}$ (ad Siddhayoga 81.41) quotes him as Bhīmadatta. He lived in the tenth century according to P.V. Sharma, ⁸⁹ in the eleventh century according to B. Tripāthī. ⁹⁰

BHOJA wrote a vṛtti on the $Carakasanhit\bar{a}$ according to the Gulabkunverba editors of this saṃhitā.

BRAHMADEVA⁹² is sometimes⁹³ regarded as a commentator on the *Carakasannhitā*, which may be right in spite of rather scanty evidence.⁹⁴

CAKRAPĀNIDATTA 95 wrote a commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā that is called $\bar{A}yurvedad$ īpikā. 96

The following authors, works and schools are quoted or referred to in it: Abhidhā-naśāstra (Śā.1.112), ⁹⁷ Agastya (Sū.1.62–63ab), Agniveśa (Sū.2.17; Ci.3.197–200ab; Ci.4.62–72 and 88; Ci.7.60–64), Agniveśasaṃhitā (Ci.3.179cd–188ab), Angiri (Si.1.20cd–22ab), Āṣādhavarman (Ci.3.216–217; 23.137–139; Si.1.13cd–14ab and

25), Aśvavaidyaka (Sū.7.39-40), Ātreya (Ci.3.197-200ab), bauddhāh (Śā.1.46-47). Bauddhasiddhānta (Sū.8.12), Bhadraśaunaka (Si.1.20cd-22ab), Bhālukīya (Ci.3.108), Bharadvāja (Si.1.3-6ab), Bharata (Ci.21.9), 98 Bhāsadatta (Ci.3.216-217), Bhatta (Sū.30.84-85; Vi.8.42), Bhattāraharicandra (Sū.1.45; Si.12.41cd-45ab), Bhela (Ci.3.285cd-287ab), Bhīmadanta (Ci.10.53), Bhoja (Ci.5.158; 15.17 and 93; Ci. 25.24-25; Si.1.20cd-22ab), Brahmadeva (Ci.3.216-217), Caksusyena (Ci.7.62-64), Candrikā (Sū.27.129; Ci.26.293), Caraka (Sū.11.25; Ci.3.160cd-161ab; Si.12.36cd-41ab), carakasanskāra (Ci.6.5-6), Dāruka (Ci.3.197-200ab), Dāruvāha (Ci.3.74), dhānvantarīyāh (Ci.5.44), Drdhabala (Sū.7.45-50; Ci.14.234-242; Ka.12.87-97; Si. 12.36cd-41ab), gandhaśāstra (Ci.28.155), Haricandra (Sū.7.46; Ci.3.179cd-188ab), Hārīta (Sū.1.30-31 and 68-74ab; 21.39-43; 26.25-26; 27.4, 114, 197, 213-216, 231-234ab, 237-238ab, 243-246, 338; 28.4; Ni.1.8; Śā.2.6-10; 8.5-8; I.7.3; Ci.3.71-72, 138cd-139ab, 139cd-140ab, 149cd-155ab, 160cd-161ab, 161cd-163ab; Ci.8.145-148; 16.34-39ab; 17.141cd-144; 22.8; Si.1.20cd-22ab and 23cd-24; 3.12cd-13ab, 30cd-31ab and 31cd-33ab; 9.50cd-57), Harivamśa (Sū.1.2), Hastivaidyaka (Sū. 6.9-18), Hiranyāksa (Si.12.41cd-45ab), Īśvarasena (Ci.15.88-93; Si.1.20cd-22ab), Jatūkarna (Sū.1.2 and 44; 2.18-33; 4.12 and 17; 5.16-18ab, 49cd-51ab, 63cd-71ab; 7.61-62; 26.63 and 84; 27.197; Śā. 4.24; 8.19, 47, 51, 55, 62; Ci.1¹.41 and 77-80; 1².16; 2².3; 2³.3-5 and 15-17; 3.42-47ab, 74, 138cd-139ab, 197-200ab; 5.96 and 149-151; 7.60-64 and 136-139; 8.145-148; 9.42cd-44; 10.34-36; 11.25-26, 56-61, 66-69, 88-90, 91-92; 12.50-52; 13.112cd-116ab; 14.76-88 and 138-169; 15.82-86; 17.42-44; 19.82-84 and 104cd-113ab; 23.229-242ab; 26.73-75, 166-175, 221-230; 28.136cd-138ab, 138cd-142ab, 142cd-157ab, 29.49-60 and 123; Ka.4. 7cd-9ab; 6.5cd-7 and 12cd; 8.11; 9.14-16; Si.1.20cd-22ab, 25, 47cd-49ab; 3.26cd, 27-3\daggerab. 30cd-31ab; 9.12-15; 10.37-38ab), Jejjata (Si.1.20cd-22ab), jyotişa (Sü.15.9), Kamalaśīla (Sū.11.25),99 kāmaśāstra (Ci.21.4cd-8ab), Kapila (Sū.26.8), Kapilabala (Sū.7.45-50), Karāla (Ci.26.129-131), kāśmīrāh (Ci.3.114cd-128ab; 10.54-63; 13.112cd-116ab; 25.39cd-43; 30.127cd-132; Si.12.16), Kāśyapa (Vi.8.125; Ci. 23.32), Kharanāda (Ci.3.74, 137cd-138ab, 160cd-161ab, 216-217; 28.15-19ab; 29.24-29), Krsnātreya (Ci.3.197-200ab; 4.73-77; 15.129-131), Ksārapāni (Sū.8.18; 21.39-43; Ni.3.13-14; Ci.3.216-217; 19.7), ksāratantra (Ci.5.60cd-64ab), Ksīrasvāmidatta (Ci.4.93-94), Kumāratantra (Śā.6.27), 100 Laliteśvara (Sū.30.35), 101 Nala (Sū.27.265-267), 102 Nighantu (Ci.7.70-72), 103 Nighantukāra (Sū.27.4), 104 Nirātmavādimata (Śā.1.46-47), Nyāya (Vi.8.18, 36, 56, 65-66), 105 nyāyavidah (Sū.1.48; 2.7-8; 4.4), Parāśara (Ci.15.20cd-35; Si.1.29-31), Parihāravārttika (Ci.23.137-139), pūryatīkākrtah (Ci.29.24–29). Puskalāvata (Ci.3.160cd–161ab: 12.98: 20.20–22). Saindhava (Si.1.20cd-22ab), saindhavāh (Ci.10.54-63), Śālākya (Sū.2.3-6; 5.7, 16-18ab, 20cd-25ab, 26cd-27ab; 8.9; Śā.8.32; Ci.11.56-61; 15.3-4; 26.104-107ab, 107cd-109, 119-123, 127-128, 180-187ab, 187cd-205; Si,9.74-78 (twice) and 111–115, ¹⁰⁶ Śalyatantra (Ci.5.48cd–56ab and 60cd–64ab; 12.96–97; 25.40), Sāmkhya (Sū.8.3; Śā.1.24; 2.31–36; 3.8), Sāmkhyadarśana (Si.9.4–5), sāmkhyāh (Śā.1.17), sāmudrakāh (Śā.8.9), Sāmudrika (I.1.7), Śāntaraksita (Sū.11.25), 107 Sātyaki (Ci. 26.129-131), Śaunaka (Sū.4.7; Ci.3.197-200ab), Smrti (Sū.1.48), 108 sūdaśāstra (Sū.2.17; Ci.3.190cd-194ab; Ka.1.23; Si.1.11cd-12ab), Suśruta (many times),

suśrutavyākhyātāraḥ (Śā.4.24), Svāmidāsa (Ci.3.216–217), Vāgbhaṭa (Sū.1.30–31; 6.33–40 and 41–48; 7.41 and 45–50; 17.3–7; Ni.1.8, 10, 11; Vi.8.100; Ci.3.48cd–49 and 197–200ab; 16.34–39ab), Vaideha (Ci.26.119–123), Vaiśeṣika (Sū.1.44 and 50; 109 8.3; 26.29–35), 110 Varāha (Śā.12.67–70), 111 Vāryovida (Si.12.41cd–45ab), Videha (Ci.26.129–131 and 134–143), Viśākhin (Ni.7.7), 112 Viśvāmitra (Sū.27.209–212; Ci.5.71–73), Vṛddhakāśyapa (Ci.23.14), Vyākaraṇa (I.1.1–2), 113 and Vyāsa (Sū.1.3; Vi.3.24; Ci.23.4–7ab).

Sources quoted anonymously are Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha (Ci.8.117–134ab), ¹¹⁴ Mahā-bhāṣya (Sū.1.1, etc.), Nyāyasū**tr**a (Sū.1.49), Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī (Sū.1.1, etc.), Raghu-vaṃśa (Sū.1.1), Sāṃkhyakārikā (Śā.1.20–21, 24, 29–30, 37–38, 63–64, 66–67ab, 67cd–69), Vāgbhaṭa (Sū.26.57cd–58), and Vaiśeṣikasūtra (Sū.1.1, etc.).

Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā is quoted¹¹⁵ in Satyanārāyaṇaśāstrin's Padārthavijāāna, Priyavrat Śarmā's auto-commentaries on Āyurvedadarśana and Dravyaguṇasūtra, and Śivadāsasena's commentary on the Sūtrasthāna of the Carakasaṃhitā. The latter has extensively borrowed from Cakrapāṇi. The commentaries on the Carakasaṃhitā by Gaṇgādhara and Yogīndranāthasena refer very often to the Āyurvedadīpikā without mentioning Cakrapāṇidatta or his work by name.

Niścalakaraquotes the Āyurvedadīpikā as (Cakra's) Dī pikā, its author is referred to as the Dīpikākāra or -kṛt. Śivadāsasena quotes the Āyurvedadīpika in his commentary on the Cakradatta as Cakravyākhyā and Dīpikā, possibly also as Cakra.

Cakrapāṇidatta's commentary contains information on the text of the *Carakasaṃ.hitā*. He indicates which verses he regards as not belonging to the original text, ¹¹⁶ and points to verses accepted by some, but rejected by other commentators or schools of interpretation. ¹¹⁷ Variant readings are rather often recorded. ¹¹⁸ He mentions his preference for particular readings ¹¹⁹ or remains undecided. Cakrapāṇidatta's text of the *Carakasaṃ.hitā* emends some readings of the text of the Nirnayasāgar edition. ¹²⁰

Cakrapāṇidatta frequently quotes the views of predecessors and their interpretations of the text. In contrast with Dalhaṇa, however, it is difficult to make out which earlier commentator was his favourite authority. ¹²¹ Noteworthy are the numerous quotations from Jatūkarṇa and, in particular, the rarity with which Jejjaṭa is cited. It is not uncommon to see Cakrapāṇidatta refer to a series of interpretations by predecessors without making a choice, or placing side by side a number of explanations. ¹²² The precise meaning of particular technical terms was unknown to him. ¹²³ The same applies to the identity of a number of particular medicinal substances. ¹²⁴ The vernacular names of drugs mentioned by him are usually those known in Bengal. ¹²⁵

Cakrapāṇidatta's commentary is characterized by a conciliatory attitude. Differences between the Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā are smoothed out. 126

Cakrapāṇidatta was not interested in psychopathology since, in his opinion, the Carakasamhitā is exclusively devoted to kāyacikitsā: the mānasadoṣas are therefore of no importance. ¹²⁷ He did not admit blood as a doṣa ¹²⁸ and was in doubt regarding the relationship between pitta and agni. ¹²⁹ The concepts of poṣya or sthāyin and poṣaka or asthāyin dhātu were known to him. ¹³⁰ Regarding the metabolism of the dhātus, he concluded that the khalekapotanyāya had an explanatory force equal to (tulyabala) that of the kedārīkulyānyāya and other theories. ¹³¹ On another occasion, ¹³² he preferred either

the kedārīkulyānyāya or the dadhikṣīranyāya to the khalekapotanyāya. ¹³³ Noteworthy is the limited role he gives to the pathophysiological processes called saṃprāpti. ¹³⁴ Important is the remark on the clay–like colour of the stools in obstructive jaundice. ¹³⁵ A saha jā and vaināyakī buddhi are distinguished. ¹³⁶

With regard to dharma, Cakrapāṇidatta was of the opinion that animals may be killed if required for the preservation of health or the curing of disease, since āyurveda is concerned with ārogyasādhana and not with dharmasādhana.¹³⁷

Cakrapāṇidatta's philosophical views are in agreement with the later stages of Nyā-ya, Vaiśeṣika and Sāṇkhya. This explains that he is sometimes critical of Caraka ¹³⁸ and tries to conciliate statements found in the Carakasaṇhitā with Nyāya doctrines. ¹³⁹ In contrast with Caraka, Cakrapāṇidatta does not accept yukti as a separate pramāṇa. ¹⁴⁰ He quotes Śāntarakṣita and Kamalaśīla in support of his thesis that it is almost the same as anumāṇa, ¹⁴¹ or regards it as identical with ūha. ¹⁴² An important source of Cakrapāṇidatta was the *Praśastapādabhāsya*, which is extensively quoted. ¹⁴³ ¹⁴⁴

A CANDRIKĀKĀRA, -kāraka or -kṛt, ¹⁴⁵ the author of a commentary called Candrikā, and this commentary itself, are repeatedly quoted. ¹⁴⁶ It has to be taken into consideration that more than one commentary can be referred to as Candrikā, and that in many instances it is impossible to decide which one is meant. ¹⁴⁷ Part of the quotations are from Gayadāsa's Nyāyacandrikāpañjikā on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, ¹⁴⁸ some are from Candranandana's Padārthacandrikā on the Aṣṭangahṛdayasaṃhitā, ¹⁴⁹ other ones again may be from commentaries on the Carakasaṃhitā ¹⁵⁰ and Suśrutasaṃhitā which have not been preserved. ¹⁵¹ P. Cordier supposed that Gayadāsa wrote a commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā, called Carakacandrikā and quoted as Candrikā. ¹⁵² The same view has been expressed by P.V. Sharma. ¹⁵³

The Candrikā and its author are quoted by Aruṇadatta, ¹⁵⁴ Cakrapāṇidatta in his Āyurvedadīpikā, ¹⁵⁵ Dalhaṇa, ¹⁵⁶ Gopāladāsa in his Cikitsāmṛta, Hariśaraṇasena in his Dravyaguṇākara, Jīvāṇandavidyāsāgara in his commentary on the Rasendrasārasaṃgraha, ¹⁵⁷ Lakṣṇnīrāma in his commentary on the Siddhabheṣajamaṇimālā, ¹⁵⁸ Meghadeva in his commentary on the Mādhavadravyaguṇa, Nāgaṇātha in his Nidāṇapradīpa, Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍaṇa, ¹⁵⁹ Niścalakara, ¹⁶⁰ Śivadāsasena in his commentaries on Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikitsāsaṃgraha ¹⁶¹ and Dravyaguṇa, ¹⁶² Śrīkaṇṭhadatta in the Madhukośa, ¹⁶³ Ṭoḍara in his Āyurvedasaukbya, ¹⁶⁴ and Vijayarakṣita in the Madhukośa. ¹⁶⁵

CELLADEVA ¹⁶⁶ is a commentator quoted by Jejjaṭa. ¹⁶⁷ According to P.V. Sharma he lived in the eighth century, ¹⁶⁸ but in my view at least a century earlier on account of Jejiata's date.

DALHANA is sometimes mentioned as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā. 169

GADĀDHARA wrote a commentary on the *Carakasamhitā* according to some scholars. ¹⁷⁰ The two pieces of evidence on this point are problematic. Vijayarakṣita and Niścalakara quote the same series of interpretations of a particular technical term; one

of these interpretations is, according to Vijayarakṣita, from Gadādhara, but from the Candrikā according to Niścalakara. ¹⁷¹ A gloss to the Bhāvaprakāśa ¹⁷² is problematic since it quotes a verse of Gādadhara that conflicts with a verse of Drdhabala.

GANGĀDHARA KAVIRĀJA wrote a commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, called *Jalpakalpataru*. ¹⁷³ This very elaborate commentary deals at great length with philosophical subjects, but gives much less attention to specifically medical topics. The information on drugs is in general disappointing. ¹⁷⁴ The views of Cakrapāṇidatta are on many occasions challenged without reference to him by name. ¹⁷⁵

Authorities and works quoted by Garigadhara are: Agastya (177: Sū.1.62–63ab), Agnipurāna (522: Sū.11.23–26), Atrisamhitā (16: Sū.1.8–16ab), 176 Bādarāyana (1867 and 1869: Śā.1.152-154), 177 Bhagavadgītā (1826: Śā.1.75-76; 1958: Śā.4.9-12), Bhāluki (2442: Ci.3.108), Bhāsya (many times), 178 Bhela (2428: Ci.3.72), Caraka (passim), Chāndogyopanisad (876: Sū.25.27-29; 1881: Śā.1.152-154; 1891: Śā. 1.155), Gautama and Gautama Akṣapāda (often), ¹⁷⁹ Hārīta (2312: Ci.1³.36-40; 2428: Ci.3.72; 2438: Ci.3.87), Jaimini (39: Sū.1.45; 1869: Śā.1.152-154), 180 Jatūkarna (297: Sū.5.49cd-51ab: 985: Sū.26.84: 2412: Ci.3.50ab), Kaivalvopanisad (796: Sū.21.34-35), ¹⁸¹ Kanāda (often), ¹⁸² Kapila (several times), ¹⁸³ Kathavallī (163: Sū.1.56), 184 Kātyāyana vārttika (527: Sū.11.23-26), Lainga (48: Sū.1.47; 864: Sū.25.18-19; 1883: Śā.1.155), 185 Mahābhārata (326: Sū.6.7), Māndūkyopanisad (138, 160 and 161: Sū.1.56; 795 and 796: Sū.21.34-35), Mundakopanisad (1825: Śā.1.75-76; 1869; Śā.1.152-154), Nāgabhartrtantra (2428; Ci.3.72), Nārada (432; Sū.11.18-29), 186 Nyāyasūtra (142; Sū.1.56), Parāsara (864; Sū.25.14-15; 1214; Ni. 1.8; 2432: Ci.3.73), ¹⁸⁷ Pātañjala (1854; Śā.1.141; 1877: Śā.1.154; 1884: Śā.1.155), ¹⁸⁸ Patañjali (513: Sū.11.20), Praśnopanisad (1882: Śā.1.154), Rāvana's Kumāratantra (2138–2141: Śā.8.65), Sāmkhya (Śā.1.155), Suśruta (passim), Śvetāśvataropanisad (875 and 876: Sū.25.27-29; 1825: Śā.1.75-76), Taittirī yopanisad (443: Sū.9.4; 874: Sū.25.27-29), Vaiśesika (531 and 532: Sū.11.23-26), Vātsyāyana (many times), 189 Videha (690, 691, 692; Sū.17,26), Vyāsa (431; Sū.8.18-29; 585; Sū.12.8), 190 and Yājñavalkya (431: Sū.8.18–29; 1826: Śā.1.77; 1828: Śā.1.79). 191

Gangādhara is quoted in Āśubodha Vidyābhūṣaṇa's commentary on Govindasena's Paribhāṣāpradīpa, Gangādhara and his Jalpakalpataru are referred to in Satyanārāyaṇaśāstrin's Padārthavijāāna. Gangādhara's commentary is quoted in Gulrājśarmamiśra's commentary on the Āyurvedaprakāśa. The Jalpakalpataru is quoted in Hārāṇacandra's commentary on the Suśrutasaṇhitā (ad Su.Sū.6.21–38), Priyavrat Śarmā's auto-commentary on the Āyurvedadarśana, and the same author's Doṣakāraṇatvamīmāṇṣā.

Gangādhara Kavirāja was the author of the following medical works: ¹⁹² (1) Āgneyāyurvedavyākhyā, ¹⁹³ (2) Ārogyastotra, ¹⁹⁴ (3) Āyurvedasamgraha, ¹⁹⁵ (4) Bhaiṣajyarāmāyaṇa, ¹⁹⁶ (5) Bhāskarodaya, ¹⁹⁷ (6) Jalpakalpataru, the commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā, (7) Mṛtyuñjayasaṃhitā, ¹⁹⁸ (8) Nādīparīkṣā, ¹⁹⁹ (9) Paribhāṣā, ²⁰⁰ (10) Pathyāpathya, ²⁰¹ (11) Prayogacandrodaya, ²⁰² (12) a commentary, called Vivṛti, on the Rājavallabhanighaṇṭu, ²⁰³ and (13) Vaidyatattvaviniścaya, ²⁰⁴

Garigādhara was born in a village called Yaśohara ²⁰⁵ or Māgurā, ²⁰⁶ in the district of Jessore, now in Bangla Desh, in the year 1798 ²⁰⁷ or 1799. ²⁰⁸ His parents were Bhavānīprasād Roy and Abhayā Devī. After having become proficient in Sanskrit at the age of eighteen, he studied āyurveda under the guidance of Rāmakānta Sena in Belgharia, in the district of Rājśāhī. He started practice in Calcutta, but, due to ill health, moved to Murśidābād, ²⁰⁹ where he became a very renowned physician, ²¹⁰ who, due to his extensive learning, was called sarvaśāstra jīna. ²¹¹

Gangādhara is closely connected with the nineteenth-century revival of āyurveda in Bengal, and trained a large number of pupils who, in their turn, became influential teachers in various parts of India. Some well-known pupils of his were Dvārakānāthasena, ²¹² Hārāṇacandra, ²¹³ and Pareśanāthasena. ²¹⁴ Gangādhara died in 1884 ²¹⁵ or 1885. ²¹⁶

GAYADĀSA ²¹⁷ wrote, according to some scholars, commentaries on both the *Caraka*-and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*. ²¹⁸ Conclusive proofs that he commented on the *Carakasaṃhitā* have not been adduced. It can, however, not completely be ruled out that some quotations from the *Carakasaṃhitā* and its author refer to a commentary, called *Carakacandrikā*, on the *Carakasaṃhitā* by Gayadāsa. ²¹⁹

GOVARDHANA is regarded as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā by P. Cordier. 220

GUṇĀKARA is regarded as the author of a commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā. ²²¹ The few quotations which are available may be in support of this hypothesis. Vijayarakṣita and Vācaspati mention in their commentaries on the Mādhavanidāna (5.31-32 = Ca. Ci. 14.21-22) explanations of a particular technical term by Cakra(pāṇidatta), Guṇākara and Gadādhara. Niścalakara repeats these comments, with slight variants, in his Ratnaprabhā, replacing Gadādhara by a work called Candrikā. ²²² The quotation in the Mādhavanidāna may imply that, besides Cakrapāṇidatta, Guṇākara and Gadādhara commented on the Carakasaṇhitā; this piece of evidence is unfortunately not conclusive, because the technical term involved (āṭopa) also occurs in the Suśrutasaṃhitā. Moreover, Niścala's remarks form part of his comments on a verse from an unknown source, which may or may not be Caraka. ²²³ Another quotation from Guṇākara in Niścala's commentary ²²⁴ is inconclusive, because it refers to a verse borrowed from an unknown source again.

The Guṇākara referred to is without any doubt different from the author of the same name who wrote a commentary on the Yogaratnamālā ascribed to Nāgārjuna, ²²⁵ because the latter Guṇākara is later than Vijayarakṣita. The Guṇākara quoted by Vijayarakṣita, Niścalakara and Vācaspati may belong to the eleventh century, since Vijayarakṣita lived in the first half of the twelfth century. ²²⁶

A medical authority called Guṇākara whose identity cannot be determined is quoted in Gopāladāsa's Cikitsāinṛta and Nāganātha's Nidānapṛadī pa.

HARICANDRA or HARIŚCANDRA, also called Bhaṭṭāra(ka)hari(ś)candra,²²⁷ and sometimes indicated merely by his title of distinction, Bhaṭṭāra(ka),²²⁸ was a very

early, probably even the earliest, commentator on the *Carakasanhitā*. A small portion of his commentary, the *Carakanyāsa*, ²²⁹ has been preserved. ²³⁰ Its mangala is addressed to Sürya. ²³¹ The extant part shows that Haricandra was well acquainted with the tantravuktis. ²³²

Bhatṭāraharicandra also wrote a revised version of the *Kharanādasaṃhitā*, which he based on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. ²³³ Niścalakara may have had this revised *Kharanādasaṃhitā* in mind when quoting from Bhaṭṭāra's own saṃhitā, ²³⁴ unless the latter was a separate work. ²³⁵

Some suppose that Bhaṭṭārakahariścandra was also the author of a commentary on the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā; ²³⁶ this view is contradicted by Niścalakara, who remarks that Vāgbhata quotes Haricandra. ²³⁷

(Bhaṭṭāra)hari(s)candra is quoted by Ādhamalla, 238 Anantakumāra, 239 Aruṇadatta, 240 in the Bṛhannighaṇṭuraṭnākara, 241 by Cakrapāṇidatta, 242 Candranandana, 243 Dalhaṇa, 244 Gopāladāsa in his Cikiṭsāmṛṭa, Hemādri, 245 Indu, 246 Jejjaṭa, 247 Karandīkar in his Nidānadīpikā, 248 Nāganātha in his Nidānapradīpa, Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭa(khaṇḍana)maṇdana, 249 Narasiṃha in his commentary on the Mā-dhavanidāna, Niścalakara, 250 Rūpanayana in his commentary on the Yogaśataka, Śivadāsasena in his commentaries on the Carakasaṃhiṭā, 251 Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikiṭsāsaṃgraha 252 and Dravyaguṇa, 253 Śrīdāsapaṇdita, 254 Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, 255 Todarānanda in his Āyurvedasaukhya, 256 Vācaspati, 257 Vijayarakṣiṭa, 258 Vopadeva, 259 and in the Yogaraṭnākara. 260 Haricandra is referred to in the Bṛhannighaṇṭuraṭnākara, 261 by Candraṭa, 262 in the Mādhavadravyaguṇa, 263 by Svāmikumāra, and in an anonymous commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. An unidentified Hariścandra is cited in the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya.

An authority called *Vṛddhahāriścandra* is quoted in Anantakumāra's *Yogaratnasa-muccaya*. ²⁶⁴

The Naiyāsika, quoted by Śrīdāsapaṇ�ita, ²⁶⁵ may be Hariścandra, and the *Nyāsa*, quoted by the same author, ²⁶⁶ his *Carakanyāsa*.

Haricandra's commentary acquired great fame. 267 Hemādri refers to Haricandra (in the introduction to his Āyurvedarasāyana) as the model of the commentators on the Carakasaṃhitā. Haricandra's commentary was often praised by later authors for its high qualities. Candraṭa says in the introductory verses of his commentary on the Cikitsākalikā: "As there exist commentators like Haricandra, Jejjaṭa, and Sudhīra, it is presumptuous for anyoneelse to comment on the āyurveda". Another statement testifying to his reputation runs as follows: 268 "The ignorant one who attempts to understand Caraka's thought without (consulting) Haricandra's commentary, is (like) a man who wants to drink up²⁶⁹ the ocean." Niścala regards Haricandra on many occasions as an important authority.

Niścalakara²⁷⁰ and Śivadāsasena²⁷¹ are sometimes critical of Haricandra's opinions. Indu often rejects his interpretations.

Narahari gives in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana the following laudatory epithets to Hariścandra: munitulya, nayavid and sakalavaidyamānyatama. Śrīdāsapaṇḍita eulogizes Haricandra as the foremost authority on internal medicine. ²⁷² Some of his views on particular subjects are mentioned by Niścala. Haricandra acknowledged eighteen

types of kṣaya; ²⁷³ he distinguished a gulma in women caused by ārtava and a gulma caused by blood occurring in both males and females. ²⁷⁴

Haricandra and Jejjaṭa are more than once bracketed together in Niścala's $Ratnaprabh\bar{a}$. They are said to agree on many points, 275 but exceptions do occur too 276

Haricandra is mentioned as a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā* by Maheśvara in his *Viśvaprakāśa*: "He whose name was Haricandra, whose behaviour was as agreeable as that of the moon, held in a wholly unrivalled way the position of an irreproachable court physician to King Sāhasāṅka and adorned the treatise of Caraka with his own commentary". ²⁷⁷

Hariścandra is one of a series of medical authorities enumerated in a Sanskrit-Tibetan dictionary, called *Mahāvyut patti*, prepared by order of Khri-lde sroń-bćan (A.D. 816–838); his Tibetan name is Seń-ge zla-ba.²⁷⁸

A prose writer called Haricandra²⁷⁹ is referred to in Bāṇa's Harṣacarita²⁸⁰ and Vākpati's Gaiidavaho.²⁸¹ An author of the same name is referred to and quoted in Śrīdharadāsa's Saduktikarnāmrta²⁸² and Vallabhadeva's Subhāsitāvalī.²⁸³

A Haricandravaidyatilaka is mentioned as one of the six sons of Śabarasvāmin. 284

A Jain poet of the name Haricandra, belonging to the Digambaras, and a son of Ārdradeva and Rādhā, ²⁸⁵ is undoubtedly different from Bhattāraharicandra. ²⁸⁶ Śyāmilaka's Pādatāditaka²⁸⁷ refers to a Bāhlīka physician called Haricandra, who belonged to the Kānkāyanago ra and was a son of Īsānacandra. ²⁸⁸ A Haricandra who was much later than our commentator lived at the court of Bhillama III of Devagiri and composed an inscription in the year 1205. ²⁸⁹

The evidence available points to an early date for Haricandra because he is already quoted by Jejjaṭa. ²⁹⁰ Cakrapāṇidatta ²⁹¹ and Niścalakara ²⁹² were convinced that he preceded Vāgbhaṭa, ²⁹³ which would mean that he lived before A.D. 600. More difficult to determine is whether or not he wrote his commentary before the *Carakasaṃhitā* had been completed by Dṛḍhabala. P.V. Sharma's statement that Haricandra deals with the tantrayuktisat the beginning of his commentary ²⁹⁴ may indicate that he was not yet acquainted with Dṛḍhabala's redaction, which treats the subject at the end. ²⁹⁵ A remark made by Jejjaṭa, ²⁹⁶ namely that the chapter on madāṭyaya (Ca.Ci.24) was redacted by Caraka (and not by Dṛḍhabala) and has been well explained by Bhaṭṭārahariścandra, may be seen as slightly in favour of the view that Haricandra preceded Dṛḍhabala. ²⁹⁷

Maheśvara's statement that Haricandra, the commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, lived six generations earlier would make Haricandra belong to the early part of the tenth century, which does not tally with the probable date of Jejjaṭa. ²⁹⁸

The identity of King Sāhasārika, Haricandra's patron according to Maheśvara, is a matter of dispute. The names of five kings are found in the literature on this subject: Candragupta II Vikramāditya (A.D. 380-413), Skandagupta (A.D. 455-467), Yaśodharman of Mālwā (sixth century), Narendra of Bengal (sixth-seventh century), and Śrīcandradeva of Kanauj (eleventh century). ²⁹⁹ Since the only concrete evidence we can hold on to with regard to Haricandra's date is that he preceded Jejjaṭa, and, according to Cakrapāṇidatta and Niścala, Vāgbhaṭa, it is in my view impossible to decide which king may have been Haricandra's patron, the more so because the epithet

of Sāhasārika was given to several kings. ³⁰⁰ Equally uncertain is the identity of one or more authors called Haricandra with the physician of that name. ³⁰¹ Haricandra's place of residence is unknown, although it has been suggested that he lived in Ujjayinī. ³⁰²

HEMACANDRA is by some³⁰³ regarded as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā.

HEMĀDRI is by some³⁰⁴ regarded as a commentator on the Carakasaṃhitā.

HIMADATTA ³⁰⁵ is quoted as an early commentator on the *Carakasamhitā* by Jejjaṭa, ³⁰⁶ who accepts a certain reading on the authority of this author and some others, mentioned along with him. ³⁰⁷ According to P.V. Sharma, he also wrote a commentary on the *Aṣṭaṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā* and has to be placed in the eighth century. ³⁰⁸ G. Hāldār³⁰⁹ also mentions this commentary on the *Aṣṭaṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā* and asserts that he is somewhat earlier than the ninth century. B. Tripāṭhī³¹⁰ places him in the ninth century. Actually, Himadatta's date depends on that of Jejjaṭa, who quotes him.

INDUKARA is by some 311 regarded as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā.

ĪŚĀNA or ĪŚĀNADEVA ³¹² was a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. ³¹³ A commentary (vyākhyā) by Īśāna is explicitly referred to in Śrīkaṇṭhadatta's commentary on the *Siddhayoga*. Niścalakara's quotations are for by far the larger part from a commentary on the *Carakasamhitā*.

Īśāna(deva) is quoted by Nāganātha in his *Nidānapradīpa*, Niścalakara, ³¹⁴ Śrī-kaṇṭhadatta, ³¹⁵ Vācaspati, ³¹⁶ and Vijayarakṣita. ³¹⁷ Īśāna is mentioned as a commentator in the *Bṛḥannighaṇṭuratnākara*. ³¹⁸

Niścala's quotations indicate that Īsāna disagreed with Jejjata on many points. ³¹⁹ Cakrapāṇidatta supported Īsāna's views occasionally against those of Jejjata. ³²⁰ Amitaprabha accepted some of Īsāna's interpretations of Caraka. ³²¹ An author quoted by Īsāna is Pālakāpya. ³²²

D.Ch. Bhattacharyya³²³ suggested that Deva might be Isana's family name. According to some scholars he was the son of Kesavadeva, ruler of Tripura, ³²⁴ and held the same position as his father after the latter's death. ³²⁵

Support for P. Cordier's claim 326 that Īśāna was a Buddhist is not available.

Īśāna is earlier than Vijayarakṣita who quotes him; he is also anterior to Amitaprabha and Cakrapāṇidatta, who are said to agree with him on some issues. Pālakāpya, cited by Īśāna, evidently preceded him. 327

ĪŚVARASENA ³²⁸ was a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā* ³²⁹ He is quoted by Cakrapāṇidatta, ³³⁰ Narahari, ³³¹ Niścalakara, ³³² Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ³³³ and Vijayarakṣita. ³³⁴ The *Bṛhannighaṇṭuraṭnākara* refers to Īśvarasena as a commentator. ³³⁵ He is said to have commented on the *Astāngaḥrdayasaṃhitā* as well. ³³⁶

Īśvarasena was the son of Siddheśvarasena. ³³⁷ His chronological position depends on the issue whether or not Cakrapāṇidatta and Niścalakara mention a series of authors and commentators in chronological order. Both lists give the impression that this is the

case,³³⁸ which is in favour of the conclusion that Isvarasena has to be placed in the period between Jejjata on the one hand, and Gadādhara on the other. ³³⁹

JAYANANDIN is sometimes mentioned as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā, 340

JEJJAŢA³⁴¹ wrote commentaries on the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasamhitā*. The commentary on the *Carakasamhitā*, called *Nirantarapadavyākhyā*, ³⁴² has partly been preserved. ³⁴³ The extant portions cover Ci.1³.32–5.73; 23.159–24.20; 24.29–26.10; 28.83cd–29.11; 29.49–30.132; 30.288–312; Ka.1.1–4; Si.3.8–7.32; 12.74–78.³⁴⁴

Authorities and works quoted or referred to by Jejjata in this commentary are: Agniveśa (Ci.3.63–67 and 71–72), Āṣāḍhavarman (Ci.3.73, 161cd–163ab, 216–217), *Bhālukīya* (Ci.3.89cd–109ab), Bhaṭṭārahariścandra (Ci.3.137cd–138ab and 149cd–155ab; 24.3–5), ³⁴⁵ Bhela (Ci.3.160cd–161ab and 197–200ab; Si.3.13cd–20ab), Bhoja (Ci.25.24–25 and 31ab; Si.3.13cd–20ab), ³⁴⁶ Celladeva (Si.4.38–40; 6. 24), ³⁴⁷ Dāruvāha (Ci.3.63–67), dhānvantarīyāḥ (Ci.5.61cd–64ab), ³⁴⁸ Dṛḍhabala (Ci.30.127cd–132 and 289–290), ³⁴⁹ Hārīta (Ci.3.71–72, 75–83, 138cd–139ab, 146cd–147ab, 149cd–155ab, 160cd–161ab, 161cd–163ab), Himadatta (Ci.3.216–217), ³⁵⁰ Jātūkarṇa (Ci.3.63–67 and 258–259), Kharanāda (Ci.3.160cd–161ab and 216–217), Kṣārapāṇi (Ci.3.63–67 and 216–217; Si.4.25), ³⁵¹ nyāyavidaḥ (Ci.25.27), Parāśara (Ci. 3.73), Pārāśarya (Si.3.13cd–20ab), *Śalyatantra* (Ci.25.40), samāptikāra (Si.6.5–6), ³⁵² sauśrutāḥ (Ci.23.250–253), *sūdaśāstra* (Ci.24.10–20), ³⁵³ Suśruta (Ci.3.149cd–155ab, 160cd–161ab, 197–200ab, 216–217; ³⁵⁴ 23.170–174; 24.107–111), Svāmidāsa (Ci. 3.216–217, *Tārkṣyatantra* (Ci.23.250–253), ³⁵⁵ vārttikakāra (Ci.4.93–94), ³⁵⁶ and *Yogaśāṣtra* (Ci.28.220cd–222ab). ³⁵⁷

Additional sources are, according to Haridattaśāstrin: ³⁵⁸ Manu (p. 836), *Nirukta* (p. 833), Śaunaka (p. 876), *smṛti* (p. 840), *śruti* (pages 839 and 844), *Vyākaraṇakārikā* (p. 880), ³⁵⁹ and Vyāsabhaṭṭāraka (p. 839). P.V. Sharma adds Śaunaka and Vāgbhaṭa. ³⁶⁰ P.V. Sharma and G.P. Sharma ³⁶¹ add the aupaniṣada chapter of the *Kāmasūtra* (Ci. 2.47), Patañjali's *Mahābhāṣya* (Ci.24.88), and Vāgbhaṭa. K.R. Srikantha Murthy adds the *Aṣṭāṅgāvatāra*. ³⁶² Some anonymous quotations (Ci.28.83cd–89ab; Ci.30.63–70ab) may derive from an early nighaṇṭu.

Jejjata quotes Videha according to Niścala. 363

Schools of interpretation of the *Carakasamhitā*, referred to by Jejjaṭa, are the gauḍāḥ (Ci.3.197–200ab; 28.89cd–99ab), hariścandrāḥ (Ci.3.179cd–188ab), ³⁶⁴ kā-śmīrāḥ (Ci.3.210–214; 30.127cd–132), paitāmahāḥ (Si.3.30cd–31ab), ³⁶⁵ saindhavāḥ (Ci.3.210–214; 30.127cd–132), śivasaindhavāḥ (Ci.3.73), ³⁶⁶ and vaiṣṇavāḥ (Si.3.27–30ab; 6.24).

As can be seen from the above lists, Jejjata had many predecessors, sometimes quoted as ṭīkākārāḥ (e.g., Ci.3.139cd-140ab) or vyākhyākārāḥ (e.g., Ci.3.194cd-196).

It mattered very much to Jejjata to determine which readings of the Carakasamhitā could be regarded as genuine. An important example is found in his comments to chapter thirty of the Cikitsāsthāna, where verses 128cd–287 are rejected by him, although these are acknowledged by the kāśmīrāḥ and saindhavāḥ. ³⁶⁷ Some other verses, regarded as spurious by Jejjata, are Ci.3.194ab–195cd and 211–214. ³⁶⁸ Niścala records

that Jejjaṭa did not accept Ci.4.66 as authoritative. ³⁶⁹ The recension adopted by Jejjaṭa as authoritative differs at a considerable number of places from the one recognized by Cakrapāṇidatta. ³⁷⁰ An interesting example is Ci.30.82, where būka and pullāsa are substituted for veṇu and kośāmra. ³⁷¹ Jejjaṭa does not accept the readings of the gauḍa, kā-śmīra and saindhava recensions of the Carakasamhitā.

The information on drugs provided by Jejjata shows that differences of opinion already existed with regard to the identity of a number of medicinal substances. ³⁷² Descriptions of plants, ³⁷³ the names of the regions where they grow, ³⁷⁴ and their local names ³⁷⁵ are relatively rare.

Cakrapāṇidatta's commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā* shows the influence of Jejjata, ³⁷⁶ although the latter is referred to once only. ³⁷⁷

Bakula versified parts of Jejjata's commentary on the Carakasamhitā. 378

It is beyond all doubt that Jejjaţa also wrote a commentary on the whole of the Suśrutasaṃhitā. This commentary, also partly preserved, ³⁷⁹ must have been one of the oldest, or even the oldest one, on that treatise. Its title is nowhere recorded, although P. Cordier ³⁸⁰ and S. Dasgupta ³⁸¹ held the opinion that it was called Brhallaghupañ jikā. ³⁸² Jejjaṭa's commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā must have remained available for a long time, since it was consulted by Candraṭa before he started writing his Suśrutapāṭhaśuddhi. Niścala's Ratnaprabhā on the Cakradatta and Dalhaṇa's Nibandhasaṃgraha on the Suśrutasaṃhitā are rich sources of quotations from Jejjaṭa's commentary. ³⁸³ Hemādri still refers to it in the introduction to his Āyurvedarasāyana on the Asṭāngaḥrdayasaṃhitā as the model of the commentaries on the Suśrutasaṃhitā.

The quotations in Dalhana's commentary prove that one of Jejjata's aims was, in the same way as in his commentary on Caraka, to establish a reliable text and to discard readings which he considered to be inauthentic (anārṣa). 384 On the other hand he sometimes added verses, composed by himself, to the text of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, as is made clear by Gayadāsa and Dalhaṇa. 385

Some scholars claim that Jejjaṭa wrote a commentary on Vāgbhaṭa's works. ³⁸⁶ This assertion, which is not supported by evidence, is probably based on the tradition that Indu and Jejjaṭa were pupils of Vāgbhaṭa.

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Jejjata³⁸⁷ are: Ādhamalla in his commentary on the Śārngadharasaṃhitā,³⁸⁸ Ambikādattaśāstrin in his commentary on the Rasendrasārasaṃgraha,³⁸⁹ Anantakumāra,³⁹⁰ the commentary on the Āyurvedābdhisāra, Bhāvamiśra,³⁹¹ Cakrapāṇidatta,³⁹² Candraṭa,³⁹³ Dalhaṇa,³⁹⁴ Gayadāsa,³⁹⁵ Gopāladāsa in his Cikitsāmrṭa, Gulrājśarmamiśra in his Viśikhānupraveśavijñāna, Hemādri,³⁹⁶ Indu,³⁹⁷ the Kairalī commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāngaḥrdayasaṃhitā,³⁹⁸ Karandīkar in his Nidānadīpikā,³⁹⁹ Kāśirāma's commentary on the Śārngadharasaṃhitā,⁴⁰⁰ Kṛṣṇadatta's commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, Meghadeva's commentary on the Mādhavadravyaguṇa, Nāganātha's Nidānapradīpa, Naranir's Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana,⁴⁰¹ Narasiṃha's commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, Nārāyaṇa's Jvaranirṇaya, Nīlamegha's auto—commentary on the Tantrayuktivicāra, Niścalakara,⁴⁰² Rūpanayana in his commentory on the Yogaśataka, Śivadāsasena in his commentaries on the Carakasaṃhitā,⁴⁰³ Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāngaḥrdayasaṃhitā,⁴⁰⁴ Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikitsāsaṇgraha⁴⁰⁵ and Dravyaguṇa,⁴⁰⁶ Śivadatta

in his auto-commentary on the Śivakośa, 407 Śrīkanthadatta in the Madhukośa 408 and Kusumāvalī, 409 Sukhānanda in his commentary on the Vaidyajīvana, 410 Toḍara in his Āyurvedasaukhya, 411 Trimalla in his Bṛhadyogataranginī 412, Vācaspati in his Ātankadarpaṇa, 413 Vāsudeva in his Vāsudevānubhava, Vijayarakṣita in the Madhukośa, 414 and Vopadeva in the Siddhamantraprakāśa. 415 Jaijjata's commentary on the Carakasaṃhitā is quoted in the Yogaratnākara. 416 He is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portion of Niścala's Ratnaprabhā. 417

Mahājahnupati Vāhaṭa is mentioned as Jejjaṭa's teacher. ⁴¹⁸ D.Ch. Bhattacharyya ⁴¹⁹ regarded Mahājahnu as a place–name, suggesting moreover that it survives in the name of a small town, called Majhanda, situated about fifty miles to the north of Hyderabad, on the west bank of the Indus. P.V. Sharma and G.P. Sharma, ⁴²⁰ on the other hand, consider Mabājahnuvatī to be the name of a place in Kaśmīr.

Some identify Jejjata's teacher with the famous medical author Vāgbhata, ⁴²¹ whereas others are opposed to this identification. ⁴²² A South-Indian tradition makes Indu, who commented on Vāgbhata's works, a fellow pupil of Jejjata. ⁴²³

Some adhere to the view that Jejjata was the same as Jaiyata, father of Kaiyata, the author of the $Prad\bar{\imath}pa$ on the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sya$, and Mammata, who composed the $K\bar{a}vyaprak\bar{a}sa$, but this hypothesis is rejected by others. ⁴²⁴

Jejjaṭa's place of residence is a point of contention as well. Those who are in favour of the view that Jejjaṭa was a pupil of the medical author Vāgbhaṭa consider him to have resided, together with his teacher, in Sindh, 425 whereas others give preference to Kaśmīr. 426

Jejjaṭa's faith is another controversial issue. Probably he was a Hindu and not, as advanced by some, a Buddhist. 427

The following points have to be taken into consideration when trying to determine the period in which Jejjata lived. Drehabala and Bhaṭṭāraharicandra preceded him because they are quoted. The same applies to Vāgbhaṭa, one of whose verses (A.s.Ni.2.96cd-97ab) is quoted (ad Ci.1³.32-35) as coming from another treatise (tantrāntara). ⁴²⁸ The claim that Jejjaṭa is later than Mādhava, the author of the Rugviniścaya, put forward by P.V. Sharma and G.P. Sharma, ⁴²⁹ is unfounded, since the quotation they refer to (ad Ci.3.51cd-52cd) does, contrary to their assertion, not occur in Mādhava's work; it forms part of the Aṣṭāngasamgraha (Ni.2.65), where it is said to be derived from Hārīta. Consequently, Jejjaṭa's terminus ad quem is about A.D. 600. Jejjaṭa is quoted or referred to by Gayadāsa (about A.D. 1000), Candraṭa (tenth century) and Vmda (about A.D. 900).

The chronological limits thus established, A.D. 600–900, can be narrowed down by a careful consideration of pieces of information provided by other commentators. A remark by Vijayarakṣita (ad Mādhavanidāna 22.70cd–72), who states that Kārttikakuṇḍa copied a particular interpretation of Jejjaṭa, proves that the latter preceded the former. Niścalakara, who mentions Jejjaṭa and Kārttika together in a number of instances, places the latter always after the former. Vopadeva's commentary on the Siddhamantra (ad 122 and 123) contains clear indications on Jejjaṭa's anteriority to Vāpyacandra. A reference by Śrīkaṇṭhadatta (ad Mādhavanidāna 35.22d–24) to the views of Jejjaṭa and Gadādhara implies that the latter is later than Jejjaṭa. 430

The anteriority of Jejjata with regard to Gadādhara, Vāpyacandra and Kārttika-kuṇḍa appears to be confirmed by the order of the names of a series of commentators ⁴³¹ on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, as given by Vijayarakṣita on two occasions: Jejjaṭa-Vāpyacandra-Mādhavakara-Kārttikakuṇḍa (ad *Mādhavanidāna* 1.5d-6), Jejjaṭa-Ga-dādhara-Vāpyacandra (ad *Mādhavanidāna* 1.11-13). ⁴³²

A relative chronology has thus been obtained, which enables us to place the commentators Jejjaṭa, Gadādhara, Vāpyacandra, Mādhavakara and Kārttikakuṇ•a, the one following upon the other, in the period A.D. 600–900. 433 Unfortunately, the identity of the commentator Mādhavakara cannot be established with certainty; otherwise, if he were the same as the author of the Mādhavanidāna, the first three could be assigned to the period between A.D. 600 and the eighth century.

The relative chronological position of Jejjaṭa, however, makes it seem reasonable to piace him in the seventh or, at the latest, the eighth century. ⁴³⁴ This does not disagree with the statement by P.V. Sharma and G.P. Sharma ⁴³⁵ that Jejjaṭaquotes Dharmakīrti's *Pramāṇavārttika*, ⁴³⁶ but excludes that he was the father of Kaiyaṭa and Mammaṭa. ⁴³⁷

JINADĀSA was a commentator on the *Carakasamhitā*, ⁴³⁸ as appears from quotations in Śrīkanthadatta's commentary on the *Siddhayoga* ⁴³⁹ and Niścalakara's commentary on the *Cakradatta*.

Niścalakara had access to Jinadāsa's works. The *Ratnaprabhā* refers to Jinadāsa several times. The references and quotations indicate that he wrote a commentary on the *Carakasamhitā* and a treatise called *Karınadandī*, ⁴⁴⁰

Other works by this Jain author are a Jambūsvāmicarita 441 and a Kalpabhāṣyacūrni.442

Jinadāsa is said to have been a pupil of Pradyunmakṣama. 443 He is sometimes placed in the twelfth century, 444 but his terminus ante quem depends on that of Śrīkanṭhadatta. Jinadāsa is later than Jejjata according to the references to him in Niścala's commentary on the Cakradatta.

JÑĀTADEVA, son of Kāśmīra Rudradeva, wrote the Sārārthasaṃgraha, which may be a commentary on the Carakasamhitā.⁴⁴⁵

JYOTIŞACANDRA SARASVATĪ ⁴⁴⁶ wrote a commentary, called *Carakapradī pikā*, on the Sūtrasthāna of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. ⁴⁴⁷ The views of Gaṇanāthasena are repeatedly referred to in this commentary. ⁴⁴⁸ The author was a Bengali. ⁴⁴⁹

KĀRTTIKA(KUNDA) ⁴⁵⁰ wrote, according to some scholars, ⁴⁵¹ apart from his commentary on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, also one on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. Evidence in favour of this view is not available.

KṛṣṇA VAIDYA, also called KṛṣṇABHAṬṬA, is said to have written a commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. ⁴⁵² Kṛṣṇa Vaidya may be the father of Nāganātha, the author of the *Nidānapradīpa*, who probably lived in the fifteenth century. ⁴⁵³ Some assign him

to the eleventh century 454 and regard him as the father of Maheśvara, who wrote the $Viśvaprakāśa^{455}$ in 1111/12. Others suppose him to be Maheśvara's grandfather. 456

Kṣ̄RASVĀMIDATTA ⁴⁵⁷ may have composed glosses on the *Carakasaṇihitā*, as appears from quotations by Jejjaṭa and Cakrapāṇidatta (ad Ca.Ci.4.93–94). ⁴⁵⁸ P.V. Sharma places him in the eighth century, ⁴⁵⁹ but he is probably earlier on account of Jejjaṭa's date.

MĀDHAVA, the author of the *Suśrutaślokavārttika*, is sometimes also regarded as a commentator on the *Carakasamhitā*. 460

MAITREYA 461 was, according to P.V. Sharma, 462 probably a commentator on the Carakasaṃhitā. Vijayarakṣita mentions him as a medical author, 463 the Bṛhannigha-ṇṭuratnākara as a commentator. 464 In the Carakasaṃhitā he is a sage whose views are opposed to those of Punarvasu Ātreya. 465 P.V. Sharma places him in the twelfth century. 466

MEDHĀVIN is quoted as a commentator, probably on the Carakasaṃhitā, by Śrī-kanthadatta in the Vvākhvākusumāvalī. 467

MUNIDĀSA is regarded as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā by P. Cordier. 468

NĀGADEVA ⁴⁶⁹ is by some regarded as a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, ⁴⁷⁰ but the reference to him in Niścala's *Ratnaprabhā* ⁴⁷¹ points to him as the author of a commentary on the *Suśrutasamhitā*. ⁴⁷²

NANDIN is mentioned as a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā* by Gayadāsa (ad Su. Ni.6.15–19). He also wrote a commentary on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*.⁴⁷³

NARADATTA⁴⁷⁴ was the author of a commentary on the Carakasamhitā.⁴⁷⁵

Naradatta is quoted by Niścalakara as a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. And Naradatta's school of interpetation is referred to as Naradantavyākhyāsampradāya in the *Kusumāvalī*. The same school of interpretation is quoted as the Naradevopadeśaparamparā by Niścala. The followers of Naradatta are cited by Niścala as the naradattasampradāyinaḥ. Cakrapāṇidatta is said to adhere to Naradatta's views. Niścala. The ṭippaṇī of a pupil of Naradatta (naradattaśiṣyaṭippaṇī) was also known to Niścala.

The references to Naradatta suggest that he wrote, apart from the commentary on the Carakasannhitā, a medical treatise. This work may have been the Brhattantrapradīpa, quoted by Niścala. The authorship of this work is uncertain, since Niścala only mentions its title, but it may well have been written by Naradatta, Cakrapāni's teacher, which would explain that Cakrapāni incorporated two recipes from the Brhattantrapradīpa in his Cikitsāsamgraha. 482 Niścala mentions the Brhattantrapradīpa

twice in his commentary on the mukharoga chapter. He says that some verses of Cakṣuṣyeṇa are found in that work; ⁴⁸³ he also quotes it on the subject of a disorder called khaṇḍauṣṭha, described by Cakṣuṣyeṇa, Candraṭa, Nāgabhartṛ, Vāgbhaṭa, and in the Carakottaratantra. Ā vurvedasāra and Brhattantrapradīpa. ⁴⁸⁴

The Bṛhattantrapradīpa is a work of Naradatta according to G. Hāldār. ⁴⁸⁵ P.V. Sharma, who regarded it as a work of Naradatta in an earlier publication, ⁴⁸⁶ changed his opinion and attributes it to Bhavyadatta in his edition of Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā. ⁴⁸⁷

A treatise called *Tantrapradīpa*, quoted by Niścala ⁴⁸⁸ in his comments on the same chapters which mention the *Bṛhattantrapradīpa*, might well turn out to be the same work. A *Tantrapradīpa* is also quoted by Śivadāsasena. ⁴⁸⁹

Naradatta was Cakrapāṇidatta's teacher, 490 which fixes his chronological position.

NARASIMHAKAVIRĀJA wrote a commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, called *Carakatattvaprakāśakaustubhaṭīkā*. The author refers to this commentary in the one he wrote on the *Mādhavaṇidāṇa*. ⁴⁹¹

PATAÑJALI is by some regarded as the author of a Caraka vārttik a. 492

SADĀNANDA wrote a commentary, called Auşadhavivrti, on the chapters of the Carakasamhitā containing rules for the preservation of health (svasthavrtta). 493

SAINDHAVA was a commentator on the *Carakasaṃhitā* according to Cakrapāṇidatta, who mentions him in the series Arigiri-Saindhava-Jejjaṭa-Īśvarasena (Si.1.20cd-22ab). 494

SAMDHYĀKARA is a commentator on the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}^{495}$ who is quoted by Niścalakara.

ŚIVADĀSASENA⁴⁹⁷ wrote a commentary, called *Carakatattvapradī pikā*, ⁴⁹⁸ on the *Carakasamhitā*. ⁴⁹⁹ The part dealing with Sūtrasthāna 1.1 to 26.58 has been preserved, ⁵⁰⁰ but, originally, it must have covered the whole of the samhitā. ⁵⁰¹

Śivadāsasena's commentary is in general based on Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā, but he deviates from it repeatedly, which makes the work interesting and valuable. He refers to the views of his father, Anantasena, who was his teacher in āyurveda, adds quotations to those found in the commentary by Cakrapāṇidatta, and cites, since he is later than Cakrapāṇi, commentators like Aruṇadatta and Vijayarakṣita.

The Carakatatvapradīpikā is several times referred to in Śivadāsasena's commentary on the Cakradatta and twice in his commentary on Cakrapāṇidatta's Dravyaguṇasaṃgraha, which proves that it was composed before the latter two works.

Authorities and works quoted or referred to by name in the Carakatattvapradīpikā are: 502 Ācārya (1.45 and 50; 10.5; 11.41), Āgama (1.48; 8.19 and 20), Agniveśa (1.1, 2, 30–31; 26.53–57ab), Amara (4.17; 16.1–2; 21.50), Aruṇa(datta) (1.2 and 24; 5.15; 8.19; 11.34–35), Ātmatattvaviveka (by Udayana) (16.34–36), Ātreya (1.2

and 30-31), Atri (1.2), Bharadvāja (1.3, 18cd-23, 24, 25-26, 27-29, 30-31; 13.3), Bhāsya (by Praśastapāda) (1.44 and 50), Bhattāra(haricandra) (1.66; 6.49 and 50), Bhattāraharicandra (5.13), 503 Bhela (2.15), Brahmadeva (1.24), Cakra (1.50, 51, 64, 66; 4.5; 5.7lcd-76ab; 6.50; 11.34-35), Caraka (4.16; 13.18; 22.34-37), Caksusyena (5.49cd-5lab), Drdhabala (6.4; 13.51 and 65-69; 17.62), gaudīyāli (3.3-17), 504 Haricandra (7.45-50; 13.19), 505 Hārīta (1.30-31), Jatūkarna (1.44; 2.18-33; 4.12 and 17; 5.49cd-51ab and 63cd-71ab), Jejjata (6.4), įvotihšāstra (5.95-102), Kanādasūtra (1.45; 11.12), Kapilabala (7.45–50), Karāla (5.49cd–51ab), kāśmīrāh (3.3 and 13–17; 5.49cd-51ab), Kāśyapī ya (6.4), ksanabhangavādin (16.34-36), ksanabhangavādinah (1.1), 506 Ksāra(pāni) (8.18), Medinī (1.2, 24, 25-26; 7.39-40; 8.18 and 27; 12.8; 15.11), Nāgārjunatantra (21.21-28), 507 Nyāyavārttikatāt paryaṭīkā (11.21-22), 508 pitrcaranāh (1.2, 50, 51, 64; 5.49cd-51 ab and 71cd-76ab; 7.45-50; 25.45-47), 509 Prānca (10.5), 510 Purāna (1.59-61), rjavah (1.1), Rudramiśra (1.57; 511 5.15512), 513 Śālākya (5.16-18ab and 26cd-27ab), Śālihotra (14.16), Sāmkhya (19.6), Sāmkhya(kārikā) (1.43), saugatāḥ (16.27), Smrti (1.1), sūdaśāstra (15.16), Suśruta (many times), Svabhūti (8.19), 514 tantrāntara (13.18 and 65–69; 17.73–75; 24.25–29; 515 26.57cd–58). Tattvakaumudī (11.21-22), 516 Vāgbhata (many times), Vaišesika (1.42 and 50), 517 Vijayaraksita (1.57), Vrddhasuśruta (13.29-40), vrddhavaidyālı (2.18-33; 13.65-69; 20.20-22), and Vyāsa (1.3).

Many quotations and references are also found in Cakrapāṇidatta's commentary. Śivadāsasena adds quotations from well-known authorities 518 and mentions sources which are absent from the $\bar{A}yurvedad\bar{r}pik\bar{a}$.

Anonymous quotations are frequent and have only in part been traced. ⁵²⁰ Usually, Śivadāsasena agrees with Cakrapāṇidatta, but on several occasions he disagrees with him, ⁵²¹ preferring the views of Vāgbhaṭa⁵²² and their interpretation by Aruṇadatta, ⁵²³ or those of Anantasena, his father and teacher. ⁵²⁴ On other occasions he rejects Vāgbhaṭa⁵²⁵ or does not decide, regarding a series of contradictory statements as equally authoritative. ⁵²⁶ Of special interest are Śivadāsasena's expositions on the nature of the doṣas, ⁵²⁷ as well as those on taste (rasa) ⁵²⁸ and vipāka. ⁵²⁹ He distinguishes between two types of health (ārogya) ⁵³⁰ and describes three types of koṣṭha, adding a group of persons with a madhyakoṣṭha to those with a mṛdu– and krūrakoṣṭha. ⁵³¹

ŚIVADĀSA(SENA)⁵³² was the author of commentaries on the *Carakasaṃhitā* (called *Tattvapradīpikā*), Uttarasthāna of the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā* (called *Tattvabodha*), Cakrapāṇidatta's *Cikitsāsaṃgraha* (called *Tattvacandrikā*), and the latter's *Dravyagu-ṇasaṃgraha*.⁵³³

Śivadāsasena was the son of Anantasena, son of Uddharaṇa, son of Lakṣmī-dharasena, son of Kākutsthasena, son of Sāhisena,⁵³⁴ who lived at the court of Śikhareśvara⁵³⁵ and acquired fame as a poet. This is the information given by Śivadāsasena at the end of three of his four commentaries.⁵³⁶ He adds the name of his mother, Bhairavī, to that of his father in the introductory verses of two of his commentaries.⁵³⁷

Śivadāsa also tells us that his father was an expert in Vaiśeşika, Sāṃkhya and Āyurveda,⁵³⁸ lived in Mālañcikā,⁵³⁹ and held the position of court physician (antaraṅgapadavī) to Bārbak Sāḥ, ruler of Bengal (Gauda), who presented him with a

ceremonial parasol (chattra).⁵⁴⁰ Śivadāsa was trained in āyurveda and other sciences by his father,⁵⁴¹ to whom he repeatedly refers in his commentary on the Sūtrasthāna of the *Carakasamhitā*.

Mālañcikā may have been situated in the area of Kocbihār, Rangpur and Rājśāhī, ⁵⁴² in the Pavanā (Pāvnā) district of Vārendra. ⁵⁴³

In spite of his name, Śivadāsasena may have been a devotee of Visnu. 544

The chronological position of Śivadāsasena depends on the dates of the reign of Bārbak Shāh, given by some authors as 1457–1474. Sivadāsa may therefore have been active as an author during the last quarter of the fifteenth century. Significantly, and the significant significant continuity of the significant significa

An unspecified work of Śivadāsasena is quoted in Śivamiśra's Vaidyaśāstraśivānuhandha.

ŚIVASAINDHAVA is sometimes regarded as a commentator on the Carakasaṃhitā. 547

ŚRĪKANŢHA is by some⁵⁴⁸ regarded as a commentator on the Carakasaṃhitā.

SUDĀNTASENA is sometimes mentioned as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā. 549

SUDHĪRA, who commented on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, may have written a commentary on the Carakasamhitā too. 550

SVĀMIDĀSA'S commentary 551 on the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$ is referred to by Cakrapāṇidatta in his $\bar{A}yurvedad\bar{r}pik\bar{a}$, 552 Gayadāsa in his commentary on the $Suśrutasamhit\bar{a}$, 553 and Jejjata. 554 Vijayarakṣita (ad $M\bar{a}dhavanid\bar{a}na$ 1.14cd–15ab) mentions him, together with Āṣāḍhadharma, as an early commentator. Niścalakara mentions Svāmidāsa, together with Īśvarasena, as an author who distinguished twenty-five kṣayaja diseases. 555 He is, finally, also quoted or referred to by Śivadāsasena. 556 Svāmidāsa is earlier than Jejjaṭa since the latter quotes him. Svāmidāsa is sometimes considered to be identical with Svāmikumāra. 557

SVĀMIKUMĀRA ⁵⁵⁸ wrote a commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. A small portion of this *Pañjikā* ⁵⁵⁹ has been preserved. ⁵⁶⁰ In the introductory verses the author pays homage to several deities, as well as to Bharadvāja, Ātreya and Agniveśa. The maṅgala shows that he was a Śaiva. ⁵⁶¹ Svāmikumāra was perhaps the first author to confuse Caraka and Patañjali. ⁵⁶² According to P.V. Sharma he may have lived in Avanti. ⁵⁶³

Svāmikumāra states that he consulted Hariścandra's commentary before starting to write his own and repeatedly quotes from it, ⁵⁶⁴ for his part, Svāmikumāra is quoted by Jejjata; he is therefore later than Hariścandra and earlier than Jejjata. ⁵⁶⁵ An unsolved problem is whether a commentator called Svāmidāsa ⁵⁶⁶ is the same as Svāmikumāra or not. ⁵⁶⁷ It has been suggested that one of the pañjikākāras, mentioned by Dalhaṇa, may be Svāmikumāra, ⁵⁶⁸ and that he also may be identical with an Indian physician, called Kumārabhaṭṭa, who became a popular teacher of āyurveda in Thailand. ⁵⁶⁹

 $V\bar{a}$ CASPATI is by some 570 regarded as the author of a commentary on the Carakasamhitā.

VAISNAVA is sometimes regarded as a commentator on the Carakasamhitā. 571

VANGASENA, the author of the Cikitsāsārasaṃgraha, is occasionally regarded as a commentator on the Caraka samhitā. 572

VĀPYACANDRA, ⁵⁷³ also called Bāṣpacandra, ⁵⁷⁴ was, as appears from quotations, a commentator on the *Caraka samhitā*.

Vāpyacandra is quoted by Gopāladāsa in his Cikitsāmṛta, Hemādri, ⁵⁷⁵ Kṛṣṇadatta in his commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, Lakṣmīrāma in his commentary on the Siddhabheṣa jamanimālā, ⁵⁷⁶ Meghadeva in his commentary on the Mādhavadravyaguṇa, Nāganātha in his Nidānapradīpa, Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana, ⁵⁷⁷ Narasiṃha in his commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, Niścalakara, ⁵⁷⁸ Śivadatta in the commentary on his Śivakośa, ⁵⁷⁹ Śivadāsasena in his commentary on Cakrapāṇidatta's Dravyaguṇa, ⁵⁸⁰ Śrīkaṇthadatta in the Madhukośa ⁵⁸¹ and Kusumāvalī, ⁵⁸² Vācaspati in his Ātaṅkadarpaṇa, ⁵⁸³ Vijayarakṣita in the Madhukośa, ⁵⁸⁴ and Vopadeva in his Siddhamantraprakāśa, ⁵⁸⁵ Vāpyacandra is mentioned as a commentator in the Bṛhannighanturatnākara, ⁵⁸⁶

Vāpyacandra may also have commented on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, ⁵⁸⁷ but the claim of some scholars that he wrote a commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṇdayasaṃhitā is unfounded. ⁵⁸⁸ A Bāṣpacandratanhra, the nature of which is unknown, seems to have existed in former years. ⁵⁸⁹ Some scholars assume that Vāpyacandra composed a nighaṇṭu, ⁵⁹⁰ because a number of quotations, found in particular in the Siddhamantraprakāśa, elucidate the nature and properties of medicinal substances. In favour of the view that Vāpyacandra wrote a nighaṇṭu is the fact that some of these quotations are in verse. ⁵⁹¹

The upper limit of Vāpyacandra's date is provided by the earliest authors to quote him, Vijayarakṣita and Śrīkaṇṭhadatta. The lower limit can be deduced from the Siddhamantraprakāṣa in which Vopadeva twice states that Vāpyacandra disagrees with Jejjaṭa, which means that he is later than the latter. Vāpyacandra's posteriority to Jejjaṭa is probably confirmed by Vijayarakṣita who, on two occasions, mentions a series of commentators who may have been put in chronological order: Jejjaṭa-Vāpyacandra-Mādhavakara-Kārttikakuṇḍa, ⁵⁹² and Jejjaṭa-Gadādhara-Vāpyacandra. ⁵⁹³ The correctness of the hypothesis of a chronological order would narrow down the chronological position of Vāpyacandra in making him later than Gadādhara ⁵⁹⁴ and earlier than Kārttikakuṇḍa. Two quotations, found in the Kusumāvalī, suggest that Vāpyacandra preceded Cakrapāṇidatta. ⁵⁹⁵

The most probable conjecture concerning Vāpyacandra's date is that he lived in the seventh or eighth century. $^{596}\,$

VRNDA is sometimes said to have written a commentary on the Carakasamhitā. 597

YOGĪNDRANĀTHASENA wrote a commentary, called *Carakopaskāra*, on part of the *Carakasaṃhitā* (Sū.1-Ci.20).⁵⁹⁸ It is written in simple Sanskrit,⁵⁹⁹ follows in its explanations Caraka's text word for word ⁶⁰⁰ and analyses each compound. Yogīndranā-

tha sometimes agrees in his interpretations with Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁶⁰¹ sometimes with Gaṅgādhara; ⁶⁰² at other places he tries to synthesize their views ⁶⁰³ or gives his own opinion. ⁶⁸⁴ On rare occasions the Bengali equivalents of the names of medicinal substances are mentioned. ⁶⁰⁵

Authors and works quoted or referred to in vols. I and II are: Astāngahrdayasambitā (passim), Astāngasamgraha (passim), Bhagavadgītā (1138: Śā.1.37; 1147: Śā.1.65),606 Bhāsā pariccheda (20: Sū.1.48; 28: 1.59),607 Bhā vaprakāśa (11: Sū.1.28-29; 40: 1.93-94; 72: 3.21; 624: 27.8-10; 626: 27.15; 646: 27.88cd-89ab), Bhela (many times), Caraka (passim), Gautamasūtra (260: Sū.11.20; 1055: Vi.8.39),608 Īśvarakrsna (256: Sū.11.8), 609 Kātyāyana (203: Sū.8.18), Ksārapāni (203: Sū.8.18), Kusumāñjali (1142: Śā.1.48),610 Mādhavanidāna (68: Sū.3.7; 86: Sū.4.8), Nyāyadarśana (many times), Nyāyasūtra (762: Sū.30.17-19), Pānini (many times), Pātañjala (6: Sū.1.8-14; 1150: Śā.1.70-72), 611 Pulastya (204: Sū.8.18), Rājanighantu (37: Sū.1.81-85; 56: Sū.2.9-10; 57: Sū.2.11-13; 61: Sū.2.23; 99: Sū.4.16; 623: Sū.27.8-10), Sāmkhyadarśana (25: Sū.1.56), Sāmkhyakārikā (1135: Śā.1.25-26; 1148: Śā.1.66–67), Siddhayoga (73: Sū.3.23), Sūryasiddhānta (146: Sū.6.4), Suśruta (passim), Suśrutatīkā (446: Sū.19.4), 612 Vāgbhata (passim), Vaišesika (many times), Vāstuvidyā (342: Sū.14.46), Vedāntabhāsya (2: Sū.1.1),613 Viśvanāthakārikā (1132: Śā.1.18–19), 614 Vrddha vā gbhata (passim), Vrnda (66: Sū.3.4), and Yogadar sana (264: Sū.11, 28-29), 615 616

Yogīndranātha's Carakopaskāra is quoted in Priyavrat Śarmā's auto-commentary on the Āvurvedadarśana.

Yogīndranāthasena was born in 1871 as the eldest son of Mahāmahopādhyāya Kavirāja Dvārakānāthasena,⁶¹⁷ one of the pupils of Gangādhara.⁶¹⁸ He studied āyurveda under his father and came to be recognized as one of the foremost āyurvedic physicians of India, the first one upon whom the title of Vaidyaratna was conferred by the Government of India in 1922. He died in 1931.⁶¹⁹

ANONYMOUS COMMENTARIES on the Carakasamhitā are recorded in MSS catalogues. 620

Part 2 Suśrutasaṃhitā

Chapter 1 Sütrasthāna¹

Chapter one, called vedotpatti, begins, like the Carakasamhitā, with a story concerning the origin (utpatti)² of (āyur)veda.

A group of sages, desirous of being helpful to human beings afflicted by diseases, and wanting to preserve their own health,³ approaches Divodāsa, king of Kāśī, (an incarnation of) Dhanvantari,⁴ with the request to teach them the science of āyurveda. This group consists of Aupadhenava, Vaitaraṇa, Aurabhra, Pauṣkalāvata, Karavīra, Gopuraraksita, Suśruta, and others (1.1-4).

Dhanvantari complies and relates that Svayambhū (= Brahmā), even before creating mankind, composed the āyurveda, which forms one of the upāṅgas of the Atharvaveda, in one hundred thousand verses, arranged in thousand chapters; in consideration of the short life span and restricted intelligence of men, he recast it into the following eight divisions: śalya, śālākya, kāyacikitsā, bhūtavidyā, kaumārabhṛtya, agadatantra, rasāyanatantra, and vājīkaraṇatantra (1.5–8).6

All the sages express the wish to receive, first of all, instruction in śalya; Suśruta is appointed as the one to ask questions, while the others will listen attentively to Dhanvantari's answers (1.9–13).

Dhanvantari begins his teaching by expounding the object (prayojana) of āyurveda: making the diseased free from disease and preserving the health of the sound; he also explains the etymology of āyurveda (1.14–15). He announces that his instruction will be in conformity with pratyakṣa (perception), āgama (authoritative scripture), anumāna (inference), and upamāna (analogy) (1.16).

Śalya is declared to hold he foremost place among the branches of āyurveda, because it was applied, on the occasion of Dakṣa's ⁸ sacrifice, with a view to the healing of the wounds inflicted and the restoration of the head of the sacrifice. ⁹ It is pre-eminent too on account of its quick action, owing to the use of sharp and blunt instruments (śastra, yantra), caustics (kṣāra), and cautery (agni) (1.17–18).

Brahmā was the first to promulgate āyurveda; from him Prajāpati learnt it, from Prajāpati the Aśvins, from the Aśvins Indra, from Indra myself (i.e., Dhanvantari) (1.20). A verse follows, in which Dhanvantari, who calls himself Ādideva, ¹⁰ announces to have appeared on the earth in order to teach surgery, as well as the other branches of medical science (1.21).

In this science, the purusa is the living body, composed of the five mahābhūtas. The world is divisible into beings that cannot move (sthāvara) and those that move about (jangama), into fiery (āgneya) and cool (saumya) substances, into substances with a

preponderance of one of the mahābhūtas, and into four classes of beings: saṃsvedaja, jarāyuja, andaja, and udbhijja¹¹ (1.22).

The four classes of diseases are defined: āgantu, śārīra, mānasa, and svābhāvika (1.23–26). ¹² The means for checking diseases are saṇiśodhana, saṇiśamana, (rules regarding) diet (āhāra), and (rules regarding) conduct (ācāra) (1.27).

Medicinal substances (oṣadhi) derive from immobile (sthāvara) and mobile (jaṅgama) living beings (1.28). The immobile class consists of the types called vanaspati, vṛ-kṣa, vīrudh, and oṣadhi; their characteristics are given (1.29). ¹³ The four classes of mobile beings are enumerated again ¹⁴ and examples are given (1.30). The parts of these beings used as medicinal substances are mentioned (1.31). Inorganic (pārthiva) substances are listed (1.32). The importance of the divisions of time for medicine is discussed (1.33–34).

The subjects dealt with so far are summarized (1.35–38). A more detailed exposition of the therapeutic science, in one hundred and twenty chapters, will now follow. It is divided into five sections: Sūtra-, Nidāna-, Śārīra-, Cikitsita- and Kalpasthāna; the remaining subjects will be dealt with in the Uttaratantra (1.39–40).

Chapter two (sisyopanayanīya) describes the initiation of a student. 15

Chapter three (adhyayanasampradānīya) gives atable of contents (3.3-45). 16

The necessity of both theoretical instruction and practical training in the eight-limbed science of medicine, revealed by Ādideva, is stressed (3.46–53). The chapter ends with instructions regarding the method of study (3.54–56).

Chapter four (prabhāṣaṇīya) is about the importance of correctly understanding the text of the treatise and its terminology. The textbooks called Aupadhenava, Aurabhra, Sauśruta and Pauṣkalāvata after their authors are mentioned as the basic surgical treatises (4.9).

Chapter five (agropaharanīya) is concerned with the arrangements preliminary to surgical interventions.

Surgical treatment (karman) consists of three stages: pūrvakarman (preliminary measures), pradhānakarman (principal measures) and paścātkarman (after-treatment)¹⁷ (5.3). Surgical procedures (śastrakarman) are of eight kinds: chedya (excision), bhedya (incision), lekhya (scarification), vedhya (puncturing), esya (probing), āhārya (extraction), visrāvya (drainage), and sīvya (suturing)¹⁸ (5.5).

The items of the equipment to be collected before performing any of these interventions, and the nursing staff, are dealt with (5.6).

The proper way of draining (an abscess) is described (5.7), followed by the characteristics of a good incision (5.8–9), praiseworthy qualities of a surgeon (5.10), the proper way of making a counter-incision (in order to assure complete drainage) (5.11) or multiple incisions (5.12). Places where an oblique or curved incision should be made are listed (5.13–14). The bad effects of an improper incision are dealt with (5.15).

Pre-and post-operative measures are discussed (5.16-17), followed by fumigation

(dhūpana; 5.18), ¹⁹ and protective mantras to be used in a ritual called rakṣākarman (5.19-33).²⁰

The remaining part of the chapter is devoted to after-treatment, in particular wound dressing and the change of dressings (5.34-42).

Chapter six (rtucaryā) discusses seasonal regimen. 21

The chapter begins with an enumeration of the units of time: ²² akṣinimeṣa (the time required to pronounce a short syllable), ²³ kāṣṭhā, ²⁴ kalā, ²⁵ muhūrta, ²⁶ahorātra (a day and a night), ²⁷ pakṣa (a fortnight), and māṣa a (month) (6.4–5). ²⁸

Thetwelve months, beginning with Māgha, make up six seasons, ²⁹ each consisting of two months: śiśira (the cool season) consists of Tapas (= Māgha) and Tapasya (= Phālguna), vasanta (the spring) of Madhu (= Caitra) and Mādhava (= Vaiśākha), grīṣma (the summer) of Śuci (= Jyeṣṭha or Āṣāḍha) and Śukra (= Āṣāḍha or Jyeṣṭha), ³⁰ vaṣṣālı (the rainy season) of Nabhas (= Śrāvaṇa) and Nabhasya (= Bhādrapada), śarad (the autumn) of Iṣa (= Āśvina) and Ūrja (= Kārttika), and hemanta (the winter) of Sahas (= Mārgaśīrsa) and Sahasya (= Pausa) (6.6). ³¹

The year is divided into two halves, called after the direction of the sun's course (ayana); the southern course (dakṣiṇāyana) covers varṣāḥ, śarad and hemanta, the northern course (uttarāyaṇa) śiśira, vasanta and grīṣma; the moon and the corresponding tastes are strong during the dakṣiṇāyana, the sun and the corresponding tastes during the uttarāyaṇa (6.7–8).³² The two ayanas together make one year; five years make one yuga. Some refer to this whole series of divisions of time as the kālacakra (wheel of time) (6.9).

In this treatise, with regard to the seasonal variations of the dosas, the seasons are arranged thus: varṣāḥ, consisting of Bhādrapada and Aśvayuja (= Āśvina), śarad, consisting of Kārttika and Mārgaśīrṣa, hemanta, consisting of Pauṣa and Māgha, vasanta, consisting of Phālguna and Caitra, grīṣma, consisting of Vaiśākha and Jyeṣṭha, and prāvṛṣ (the early rainy season), consisting of Āṣāḍha and Śrāvaṇa (6.10).³³

The effects of the seasons on the dosas are described. Pitta accumulates (samcaya) during the rains and gets excited (prakopa) in the autumn; slesman (= kapha) accumulates in the winter and gets excited in the spring; vayu accumulates in the summer and gets excited during the early rains (6.11). These accumulated and excited dosas ought to be eliminated (6.12). The diseases caused by pitta subside naturally (svabhāvatas) in the winter, those by slesman in the summer (nidagha), those by vata in the autumn (6.13). The divisions of day and night have characteristics similar to the seasons: the forenoon (pūrvāhna) is the analogue of the spring, the noon (madhyāhna) of the summer, the afternoon (aparahna) of he early rains, the dusk (pradosa) of the rainy season, the nudnight (ardharātra) of the autumn, the dawn (pratyusas) of the winter (6.14). Irregularities in the seasons, due to fate (adrsta), 34 cause various diseases or epidemics (maraka) (6.16-17). Sometimes, even when the seasons are regular, the people of a country may suffer through sorcery (krtyā), curses (abhiśāpa), the wrath of a raksas, or adharma. 35 Other causes are the exhalations of poisonous flowers, the noxious influences of planets (graha) and asterisms (naksatra), ³⁶ and inauspicious omina (6.19). ³⁷ The measures to be taken in such cases are listed (6.20).

The characteristics of the normal seasons are described, beginning with the winter and ending with the autumn (6.21-36). ³⁸

Chapter seven (yantravidhi) is devoted to the blunt instruments (yantra).³⁹

The number of blunt instruments is one hundred and one; the most important among them is the hand (7.3). Śalyas cause injury (ābādha) to body and mind; yantras are the means of their removal (āharaṇa) (7.4). The yantras are of six types: svastikayantra (cruciform), saṇ�anṣʿayantra (pincer-like), tālayantra (picklock-like or spoon-shaped), nādīyantra (tubular), śalākāyantra (rod-like), ⁴⁰ and upayantra (an accessory instrument) (7.5). There are twenty-four varieties of svastikayantra, ⁴¹ two saṃdamśayantras, ⁴² two tālayantras, ⁴³ twenty varieties of nādīyantra, ⁴⁴ twenty-eight varieties of śalākāyantra, ⁴⁵ and twenty-five upayantras ⁴⁶ (7.6). As a rule, they are made of iron (lauha), or, when it is not available, of its substitutes (7.7). ⁴⁷ Their shape in general and the qualities required are mentioned (7.8–9).

The twenty-four svastikayantras are described; their mouth parts resemble the snout or beak of twenty-four different animals and birds: siṃha, vyāghra, vṛka, tarakṣu, ṛkṣa, dvīpin, mārjāra, śṛgāla, mṛgairvāruka, kāka, karika, kurara, cāṣa, bhāsa, śaśaghātin, ulūka, cilli, śyena, gṛdhra, krauñca, bhṛṅgarāja, añjalikarṇa, avabhañjana, and nandīmukha; ⁴⁸ they are used for removing a śalya from within a bone (7.10). The two saṇ daṇisayantras are described; they are provided with a catch (nigraha) or without it; ⁴⁹ they are employed in the extraction of śalyas from the skin, muscles, sirās and snāyus (7.11). ⁵⁰ The two tālayantras, with one blade (tālaka) or two blades, sirās and snāyus (7.11). The two tālayantras, with one blade (tālaka) or two blades, sirās are useful in the removal of śalyas from the passages of the ears and the nose (7.12). The nāḍīyantras are of many varieties and applied for various purposes (7.13). The many śalākāyantras and their various uses are described (7.14). The upayantras are listed (7.15). ⁵¹

The twenty-four uses of yantras are dealt with: nirghātana (wrenching out), pūraṇa (filling, with oil, etc.), bandhana (bandaging), vyūhana (retraction), ⁵² vartana (approximation), cālana (displacement), vivartana (turning round), ⁵³ vivaraṇa (dilatation), ⁵⁴ pīḍana (squeezing), mārgaviśodhana (clearing passages), vikarṣaṇa (loosening), āharaṇa (extraction), ānchana (traction), unnamana (elevation), vinamana (depression), bhañjana (breaking), ⁵⁵ unmathana (stirring with a probe), ācūṣaṇa (suction), eṣaṇa (probing), dāraṇa (splitting), rjūkaraṇa (straightening), prakṣālana (irrigation), pradhamana (insuffiation), and pramārjana (mopping up) (7.17).

The twelve defects of a yantra are enumerated (7.19). The ideal yantra is characterized (7.20). Some general guidelines are given (7.21). The kankamukhayantra (one of the svastikayantras) is praised as the foremost among the yantras (7.21). ⁵⁶

Chapter eight (śastrāvacāraṇ $\bar{1}$ ya)⁵⁷ is devoted to the twenty sharp instruments (śastra).⁵⁸

This group consists of: maṇdalāgra (circular-headed), ⁵⁹ karapattra (saw), ⁶⁰ vṛddhi-pattra (scalpel), ⁶¹ nakhaśastra (nail-parer), ⁶² mudrikā (ring knife), ⁶³ utpalapattraka (lancet), ⁶⁴ ardhadhāra (single-edged knife), ⁶⁵ sūcī (suturing needle), ⁶⁶ kuśapattra (bistoury), ⁶⁷ āṭīmukha (āṭī-bill scissors), ⁶⁹ anta-

rmukha (curved bistoury), ⁷⁰ trikūrcaka, ⁷¹ kuthārikā, ⁷² vrīhimukha (trocar), ⁷³ ārā (awl), ⁷⁴ vetasapattraka (a kind of scalpel), ⁷⁵ badiša (a sharp hook), ⁷⁶ dantaśaṅku (tooth-scaler), ⁷⁷ and eṣaṇī (a sharp probe) (8.3). ⁷⁸

Maṇḍalāgra⁷⁹ and karapattra are used for chedana (excision) and lekhana (scarification, scraping); vṛddhipattra, ⁸⁰ nakhaśastra, mudrikā, utpalapattraka and ardhadhāra for chedana and bhedana (incision); sūcī, ⁸¹ kuśapattra, ⁸² āṭīmukha, śarārimukha, antarmukha and trikūrcaka for visrāvaṇa (drainage); kuṭhārikā, ⁸³ vrīhimukha, ⁸⁴ ārā, ⁸⁵ vetasapattraka and sūcī, ⁸⁶ for vyadhana (puncturing); baḍiśa, ⁸⁷ and dantaśariku for āharaṇa (extraction); the eṣaṇī, ⁸⁸ for eṣaṇa (probing) and ānulomya, ⁸⁹ the sūcī for sīvana (suturing) (8.4).

The correct ways of handling the sastras are described (8.5), the way they are named (8.6), their sizes (8.7), their qualities (8.8) and defects (8.9), and the thickness of their edges (dhārā) (8.10). The shapes of badisa, dantasanku and eṣaṇī are dealt with (8.11).

Three kinds of tempering (pāyanā) are described: by means of caustics (kṣāra), water, and oils; the purposes of śastras tempered in a particular way are enumerated (8.12). 90

Śastras should be sharpened with a smooth stone (ślakṣṇaśilā); ⁹¹ their edges should be smoothened with a piece (phalaka) of śālmalī wood (8.13).

Accessory śastras (anuśastra)⁹² are the following: bamboo (tvaksāra), sphaţika (quartz), glass (kāca),⁹³ kuruvindā,⁹⁴ leeches, fire, caustics, the nails, leaves of gojī, śephālikā and śāka, (the shoots of) karīra,⁹⁵ hairs, and the fingers (8.15). Their uses are specified (8.16–19a). A wise (physician) should get the sharp instruments of pure⁹⁶ iron⁹⁷ (āyasa) manufactured by a skillful⁹⁸ and experienced blacksmith (karmāra)⁹⁹ (8.19b-f).

Chapter nine (yogyāsūtrīya) is about the practical training in surgical operations, ¹⁰⁰ The importance of the acquisition of practical skills, next to study of the textbooks, is stressed (9.3). Objects on which to practise excision, incision, etc., are enumerated (9.4). ¹⁰¹

Chapter ten (viśikhānupraveśanīya) ¹⁰² gives general directions for visiting a patient. ¹⁰³ A fully qualified physician should, after obtaining royal permission, go to visit his patients, appropriately dressed, ¹⁰⁴ without ostentation, friendly inclined, etc. (10.3). At a time when the signs regarding the messenger (dūta) ¹⁰⁵ and the various kinds of omina ¹⁰⁶ are auspicious, he should make his way to the patient's house and examine him by inspection, palpation and interrogation. Some say that this is usually sufficient, ¹⁰⁷ which, however, is not correct. There are six ways of obtaining knowledge about diseases (vijñānopāya): the five senses and interrogation (10.4). The signs discernible by each of the senses and the information obtainable by questioning are dealt with in more detail (10.5). ¹⁰⁸

After carrying out this examination completely, the physician should cure the curable ones and give palliative treatment to the palliable ones; incurable ones should not be treated, and pathological conditions that have persisted for more than a year should,

as a rule, be avoided (10.6). A summarizing verse follows (10.7). ¹⁰⁹ Types of patients in whom even curable diseases become most difficult to manage are enumerated (10.8).

The chapters ends with a verse on the proper behaviour towards women (10.9).

Chapter eleven (kṣārapākavidhi) deals with the preparation and uses of caustics (kṣāra), 110

The importance of caustics is emphasized (11.3). The term kṣāra is derived from kṣār- or kṣān- (11.4). ¹¹¹ The properties and actions of caustics are enumerated (11.5). Two types of caustic are distinguished: for external application (pratisāranīya) and for internal administration (pānīya) (11.6). Their indications are listed (10.7–8), followed by the contra-indications for the pānīya type (11.9). A pānīya kṣāra should be prepared in the same way as a pratisāranīya (11.10).

The pratisāraṇīya kṣāra is of three kinds: weak (mrdu), moderate (madhya) and strong (tīkṣṇa) (11.11). The preparation of the moderate variety is elaborately described, ¹¹² followed by the preparation of the weak variety, also called saṇɪvyūhima, and the strong variety, also called pākya (11.11–13). ¹¹³

The eight good qualities of a kṣāra are enumerated (11.16), followed by its eight defects (11.17).

The correct way of applying a kṣāra is described (11.18); turning black of the diseased part is the sign of proper burning (dagdhalakṣaṇa) by the caustic; when this occurs, neutralization (śamana) by an acid should follow (11.19). A particular ointment should be applied if the diseased part does not come off (11.20–21). The granulation (ropaṇa) of the wound should be promoted by a particular paste (11.22ab). The way in which acids neutralize caustics is explained (11.22cd–25). The signs of adequate, inadequate and excessive application are mentioned (11.26), followed by the way to treat the lesion (kṣāradagdhavraṇa) (11.27).

Patients and disorders, as well as sites, which are unsuitable for treatment with a ksāra, are discussed (11.28-30).

Chapter twelve (agnikarmavidhi) is about cauterization (agnikarman), 115 characterized as superior to treatment with a caustic (12.3). 116

The means for carrying out cautery are: long pepper (pippalī), goat's dung, the tooth of a cow, an arrow (śara), ¹¹⁷ or a śalākā for skin lesions; a jāmbavauṣṭha ¹¹⁸ or a similar instrument made of a metal for lesions of the muscles; honey, guda (treacle) or a fatty substance ¹¹⁹ for lesions of sirās, snāyus, sandhis and bones (12.4). ¹²⁰

The seasons for the application of cautery are discussed (12.5). The preliminary treatment is described (12.6). Some are of the opinion that only skin and muscles are to be cauterized, but in this treatise the sirās, etc., can be treated as well (12.7). ¹²¹

The signs of adequate cauterization of skin, muscles, sirās and snāyus, sandhis and bones (12.8), specific sites for cauterization in particular diseases (12.9), and the indications are listed (12.10).

Various patterns of cautery are described: circles (valaya), dots (bindu), lines (vilekhā), ¹²² and patterns produced by rubbing (pratisārana) ¹²³ (12.11). ¹²⁴

The after-treatment is dealt with (12.13); the contra-indications are listed (12.14).

1 Sütrasthāna 209

Burns (dagdha) form the next subject of this chapter. ¹²⁵ Two groups are distinguished, caused by dry heat and by heated fatty substances, and four degrees: pluşṭa (singeing), durdagdha (blister formation), samyagdagdha (proper application), and atidagdha (a deep burn); their characteristics are described (12.15–16). ¹²⁶ The pathogenesis of burns is explained (12.17–19ab). The management of the four kinds of burns is discussed (12.20–27ab), followed by an ointment for all kinds of burns (12.27cd–28), and the treatment of scalds by heated oils and fatty substances (12.29ab).

Next, the symptoms of smoke poisoning (dhūmopahata) are described (12.29cd–32) and its management by emetics, gargles (kavalagraha), evácuation of the head (śirovirecana), and diet (12.33–37).

The chapter ends with the treatment of those afflicted with the effects of hot winds (uṣṇavātadagdha), the heat of the sun (ātapadagdha), cold rains (śītavarṣadagdha), and cold winds (śītāniladagdha). Severe cases of sunstroke (atite jodagdha) and lightning burns (indrava jrāgnidagdha) cannot successfully be treated (12.38–39). 127

Chapter thirteen (jalaukāvacāranīya) deals with the application of leeches. 128

Groups of patients in whom bloodletting by means of leeches is preferable to other procedures are mentioned (13.3).

Bloodletting (raktāvasecana) can be carried out by means of cow's horns (śṛnga), ¹²⁹ leeches (jalaukā) and gourds (alābu) respectively; horns are preferable when the blood is deranged (upaṣṛṣṭa) by vāta, leeches when by pitta, gourds when by kapha (13.4–7). ¹³⁰ Cupping by means of a horn or gourd is described (13.8). The name of leech (jalāyuka, jalaukas) is explained (13.9).

Six poisonous and six non-poisonous kinds of leeches are distinguished (13.10). ¹³¹ The names of the poisonous leeches are: kṛṣṇā, karburā, alagardā, ¹³² indrāyudhā, ¹³³ sāmudrikā, and gocandanā. A description of these leeches follows. ¹³⁴ The symptoms of leech-bites and their treatment by means of a compound drug, called mahāgada, ¹³⁵ are discussed; patients bitten by an indrāyudhā are, however, incurable (13.11). The names of the non-poisonous leeches are: kapilā, pingalā, śaṅkumukhī, mūṣikā, puṇḍatīkamukhī, and sāvarikā. ¹³⁶ A description of these leeches follows (13.12). ¹³⁷ Non-poisonous leeches, with good qualities, are found in the Yavana, ¹³⁸ Pāṇḍya, ¹³⁹ Sahya, ¹⁴⁰ and Pautana ¹⁴¹ countries (13.13). ¹⁴²

The habitats of poisonous and non-poisonous leeches are described (13.14–15). The collection and storage of leeches is dealt with (13.16–17). Leeches regarded as unfit are described (13.18). The application of leeches is dealt with, their withdrawal, and their emptying. ¹⁴³ An insufficiently emptied leech develops an incurable disease called indramada (13.19–22). ¹⁴⁴ The treatment of the wounds after the application of leeches is discussed (13.23).

Chapter fourteen (śonitavarnanīya) describes blood.

The chapter opens with the formation of rasa (the nutrient fluid) from the ingested food; this rasa is the extremely subtle essence (sāra) derived from the food; its seat is the heart 145 and it is of a saumya character (14.3). 146 The watery rasa gets coloured by

tejas ¹⁴⁷ in liver and spleen (14.4–5). The rajas ¹⁴⁸ of females is derived from the same rasa; it begins to appear at the age of twelve, ceases at the age of fifty, and is of an āgneya (fiery) nature (14.6–7).

Others are of the opinion that the life-blood (jīvarakta) is composed of the five mahābhūtas, since their qualities are present in it (14.8-9).

Rasa gives rise to blood (rakta), from which muscular tissue (māṃsa) is produced; muscular tissue gives rise to fatty tissue (medas), from which osseous tissue (asthi) is produced, which in its turn gives rise to bone marrow (majjan); bone marrow gives rise to semen (śukra). 149

The pre-eminence of rasa as the primary source of the other elements (dhātu) is emphasized (14.10–12). The derivation of the term rasa is discussed (14.13). Each step in the transformational chain of the elements takes 3,015 kalās; ¹⁵⁰ the entire series takes 18,090 kalās, which view is accepted in this as well as in other treatises (14.14–15). ¹⁵¹

Aphrodisiacs possess, by dint of their special power and qualities (svabalagunotkarṣa), the ability to form semen more quickly (14.17). Semen, as well as the secondary sexual characteristics, are compared to the fragrance in a flower bud; both, being imperceptible at first, make their appearance in the course of time (14.18). ¹⁵² The rasa derived from the food is, however, unable to replenish the body of old people (14.19).

The elements (dhātu) are called thus because they support (dhāraṇa) the body (14.20).

The characteristics of blood corrupted by each of the dosas, by two and by all three dosas are described (14.21), followed by those of blood in its normal condition (14.22). ¹⁵³

Bloodletting (raktavisrāvaṇa) constitutes the next subject. ¹⁵⁴ Contra-indications are mentioned first (14.24). ¹⁵⁵ There are two kinds of bloodletting by means of sharp instruments: ¹⁵⁶ pracchāna (scarification) ¹⁵⁷ and sirāvyadhana (venepuncture or phlebotomy) ¹⁵⁸ (14.25). The technique is described (14.26). ¹⁵⁹ The causes of an insufficient flow of blood are dealt with (14.27–28), followed by the symptoms in such a case (14.29). The causes and symptoms of an excessive flow are described too (14.30). Proper bloodletting, its effects and advantages are discussed (14.31–34). Powders to increase the blood flow, styptics (raktasthāpana) ¹⁶⁰ and other methods of checking the bleeding are described (14.35–36), followed by dietary instructions (14.37–38).

Four ways of arresting haemorrhage and their indications are discussed: saṃdhāna ¹⁶¹ (contraction of the vessels) by means of astringent (kaṣāya) fluids, skandana ¹⁶² (thickening of the blood) by cold applications, pācana (desiccation of the wound) by means of ashes, and dahana (cauterization) (14.39–42). A small amount of impure blood that remains (in the system) after bloodletting does not require any further treatment (14.43). Blood should be protected carefully, because it constitutes the root of the body and is the substance that sustains it (14.44). The treatment of excited vāyu after bloodletting closes the chapter (14–45).

Chapter fifteen (doṣadhātumalakṣayavṛddhivijñānīya) discusses the signs of decrease (ksaya) and increase (vrddhi) of dosas, dhātus and malas. 163

The functions of each of the five kinds of vāyu, pitta and kapha are enumerated (15.4), ¹⁶⁴ followed by the functions of the seven bodily elements (dhātu), the three main impurities (mala), i.e., faeces (purīṣa), urine (mūtra) and sweat (sveda), and the female procreational fluid (ārtava) (15.5). All these constituents should be protected in the proper way (15.6).

The chapter proceeds with the description of the signs of decrease of each doṣa (15.7) ¹⁶⁵ and the treatment of these conditions (15.8), ¹⁶⁶ the signs of decrease of each dhātu (15.9) ¹⁶⁷ and the treatment of these conditions (15.10), the signs of decrease of each mala and the treatment of these conditions (15.11), the signs of decrease of the ārtava and the breast milk (stanya), as well as the signs pointing to a defective development of the foetus (garbhakṣaya), ¹⁶⁸ followed by the treatment of these conditions (15.12).

The signs of increase of all the mentioned elements are described, followed by the general treatment of these conditions (15.13–17).

The next subject is ojas, in this treatise regarded as identical with bala. ¹⁶⁹ Bala and ojas ¹⁷⁰ are described, together with their functions (15.19–22). Three disorders of ojas/bala are distinguished and characterized: visramsa (dislodgment), vyāpad (derangement) and kṣaya (decrease) (15.23–28ab); ¹⁷¹ the management and degrees of curability of these disorders are dealt with (15.28–31).

Sthaulya (obesity) and kārśya (leanness) constitute the next subjects. Their causes, features and management are dealt with (15.32–33). ¹⁷² An average build (madhyaśarīra) is regarded as the best; leanness is preferable to obesity (15.34–36).

The normal values (parimāṇa) of doṣas, dhātus and malas cannot be ascertained, due to their variations; ¹⁷³ a physician should for that reason infer their equilibrium or degree of disorder; it is his task to maintain the equilibrium when present and to establish it gradually when out of order (15.37–40).

The chapter ends with the definition of a healthy person (svastha) (15.41).

Chapter sixteen (karnavyadhabandhavidhi) is concerned with the piercing (vyadha) and repair (bandha) of the ears. ¹⁷⁴

The age at which a child's ears should be pierced 175 and the technique of piercing are discussed (16.3-4). 176

The complications (upadrava) which may arise when an ignorant physician accidentally (yadrcchayā) pierces one of the three sirās called kālikā, marmarikā and lohitikā are described (16.5), followed by the management of improper piercing, the care after a proper technique has been employed, and the gradual dilatation of the hole (16.6–8).

The next subject is formed by the repair (saṃdhāna) of ear lobules which split during the process of dilatation, either on account of (corrupted) doṣas or due to a trauma (abhighāta) (16.9). ¹⁷⁷

Fifteen types of split earlobes and their repair are described. ¹⁷⁸ Their names are: nemisaindhānaka, utpalabhedyaka, vallūraka, āsangima, gaṇḍakarṇa, āhārya, nirvedhima, vyāyojima, kapāṭasandhika, ardhakapāṭasandhika, saṃkṣipṭa, hīnakarṇa, vallī-karna, yaṣṭikarṇa, and kākausthaka. The first ten of these types may be repaired suc-

cessfully, the treatment of the last five is likely to fail due to complications (16.10). Special procedures to be employed in difficult cases are added (16.11–13).

The technique of reconstructing an absent earlobe by means of a pedicle flap from the cheek is succinctly dealt with in one verse (16.14). 179

The repair techniques in general are more elaborately described in prose (16.15), followed by post-operative precautions to be observed (16.16), contra-indications (16.17), ¹⁸⁰ and after-treatment (16.18).

Subjects discussed next are: the techniques of elongating the earlobes (pālivardhana) (16.19–25); ¹⁸¹ diseases of the earlobes (karnapālyāmaya) caused by the dosas, and their treatment (additional verses 1–5); ¹⁸² a series of particular complications (upadrava) and their treatment; ¹⁸³ the names of these complications are: utpāṭaka, utpuṭaka, śyāva (discoloration), sakandūka (itching), avamanthaka, kandūmant (severe itching), granthika (keloid), jambula, śrāvin (formation of a discharge), dāhavant (the occurrence of a burning sensation) (additional verses 6–19).

The chapter ends with the famous verses on plastic surgery. ¹⁸⁴ Reconstruction of a cut off nose ¹⁸⁵ by means of a flap of skin is described (16.27–31), ¹⁸⁶ followed by a similar technique for repairing a cleft lip (16.32).

Chapter seventeen (āmapakvaiṣaṇīya) is devoted to the knowledge (eṣaṇa) concerning unripe (āma) and ripe (pakva) (inflammatory swellings).

Subjects dealt with are: the characterization of śopha (swelling) (17.3); the signs of the six types of śopha, caused by one of the three doṣas, all three together, blood, and a trauma (the āgantu type) (17.4); the signs of śopha, when unripe (āma), ripening (pacyamāna) and ripe (pakva) (17.5); a real vaidya as the one who can recognize these stages (17.6); two competing theories about the patho-physiological processes leading to suppuration (pāka) (17.7–8); the dangers when an unripe swelling is incised or a ripe swelling not incised (17.9); the pre-operative regimen (17.11–13); the dangers ofleaving śopha untreated (17.14) and the advantages of starting its management early (17.15); the necessity of draining pus (pūya) (17.16); the seven main ways on treating a vraṇa (ulcer or inflamed wound): ¹⁸⁷ vimlāpana (light massage), avasecana (bloodletting and other eliminative procedures), upanāha (the application of poultices), pāṭana (operative procedures), śodhana (purification), ropaṇa (granulation-promoting measures), and vaikṛṭāpaha (restoration of the natural colour and the growth of hair) ¹⁸⁸ (17.17–18). ¹⁸⁹

Chapter eighteen (vraṇālepanabandha) is devoted to pastes (ālepana) and bandages (bandha) to be employed in the treatment of sores (vrana). ¹⁹⁰

Subjects discussed in its first part are: the importance of pastes and bandages (18.3); the rule that a paste should be applied against the direction of the hair (pratiloma) and the reasons for doing so (18.4); a desiccated paste should not be used, unless pressure (pīḍana) is required (18.5); the three types of paste: pralepa (a thin paste), pradeha (a thick paste) and ālepa (a paste of medium consistency); their actions and indications; the nature of a kalka, ¹⁹¹ its actions and indications (18.6); actions and uses of an ālepa (18.7–9); a special rule for the ingredients of an ālepana in disorders caused by vāta,

pitta or kapha (18.10); ¹⁹² the thickness of an \bar{a} lepa (18.11); ¹⁹³ the appropriate time for \bar{a} lepana (18.12-12); a lepa should always be freshly prepared (18.14-15).

The subjects of the second part are: bandaging materials (vraṇabandhanadravya) (18.16); ¹⁹⁴ the fourteen types of bandage: ¹⁹⁵ kośa, ¹⁹⁶ dāman, ¹⁹⁷ svastika, ¹⁹⁸ anuvellita, ¹⁹⁹ pratolī or mutolī, ²⁰⁰ maṇḍala, ²⁰¹ sthagikā, ²⁰² yamaka, ²⁰³ khaṭvā, ²⁰⁴ cīṇa, ²⁰⁵ vibandha, ²⁰⁶ vitāṇa, ²⁰⁷ gophaṇā, ²⁰⁸ and pañcāṇgī²⁰⁹ (18.17); ²¹⁰ the places of the body where to apply these bandages (18.18); technical rules (18.19–21); ²¹¹ three kinds of bandages: tight (gāḍha), even (sama) and loose (śithila), their characteristics and indications (18.22–25); the frequency of changing the dressing (18.26); the bad effects of improper bandaging, the advantages of correct bandaging, the disadvantages of not applying a bandage (18.27–31); contra-indications for applying a bandage (18.32–34); the site of the sore, the doṣa(s) involved, (the nature of) the sore and the season as the chief elements to be taken into consideration when selecting the proper bandage (18.35); the three types of making a knot (yantraṇā): above, laterally of, and below (the sore) (18.36). The chapter ends with a series of verses that give a summary of its contents (18.37–45). ²¹²

Chapter nineteen (vranitopāsanīya) is devoted to the care of patients suffering from vrana.

The subjects dealt with are: the selection of an appropriate sick room (āgāra) (19.3–4); the bed of the patient (19.5–6);²¹³ the importance of friendly company (19.7–8); rules for the patient (19.9–20); the effects of not observing the prescribed regimen (19.21–22); special rules aiming at warding off malevolent beings (rakṣas), attracted by the sore(s); these beings belong to the attendants of Paśupati,²¹⁴ Kubera and Kumāra (19.23); various measures to ward off these beings ((19.24–26); the recitation of benedictory verses (āśīrvidhāna) from the four Vedas by priests and physicians to protect the patient (19.27); fumigation as a protective measure (19.28); protective plants to be placed upon the head of the patient (19.29); various measures promoting healing of a vrana (19.30–37).

Chapter twenty (hitāhitīya) is devoted to wholesome (hita) and harmful (ahita) (diet and regimen).

Subjects dealt with are: the thesis that no medicinal substance is either entirely wholesome or unwholesome; the rejection of this thesis, because these substances are of three categories: beneficial, non-beneficial, or of a mixed character (20.3-4); a list of articles of diet which are most wholesome (pathyatama) (20.5); regimen declared to be most wholesome (20.6); articles of diet and regimen of a mixed character (20.7); combinations of substances which become equivalent to poisons (20.8); a second discourse on the thesis that no substance is either entirely wholesome or unwholesome (20.10-12); a list of insalutary combinations of articles of diet (20.13); ²¹⁵ incompatibilities regarding prepared dishes (20.14); ²¹⁶ quantitative incompatibilities (20.15); ²¹⁷ incompatibilities regarding taste (rasa), potency (vīrya) and vipāka (20.16); ²¹⁸ articles of diet to be avoided are those with an excess of any property (20.17); the harmful effects of incompatible substances and the management of the disorders resulting; cir-

cumstances which diminish the bad effects (20.18-22); the properties and actions of winds coming from the east, south, west, and north (20.23-30).

Chapter twenty-one (vraṇapraśna) is concerned with questions (praśna) relating to sores (vrana).

Subjects dealt with in the first part of the chapter are: the three dosas support the body, like the pillars (sthūnā) of a house; the body is called tristhūna for that reason; when deranged (vyāpanna), the same dosas bring about the body's dissolution (pralaya); the three dosas, together with blood as the fourth, are always present in the body, maintaining it (21.3-4); the etymologies of the names of the dosas (21.5); the chief seats (sthāna) of the dosas; vāta is located in the śroni (pelvic region) and guda (recto-anal region), pitta between pakvāśaya and āmāśaya, 219 kapha in the āmāśaya²²⁰ (21.6); the seats of the five kinds of pitta and kapha²²¹ (21.7); the maintaining functions of kapha, pitta and vāta are likened to the emission (visarga), absorption (ādāna), and the capacity of imparting motion (viksepa) of moon, sun and wind respectively (21.8); the relationship between pitta and agni; the internal fire (antaragni) is declared to be the same as pitta (21.9); ²²² the seats and functions of the five kinds of pitta: pācaka, located between pakvāśaya and āmāśaya, rañjaka, located in liver and spleen, sādhaka, located in the heart, ālocaka, located in the eyes, and bhrājaka, located in the skin (21.10);²²³ the qualities of pitta (21.11);²²⁴ the seats and functions of the five kinds of kapha, located in the amasava, chest, root of the tongue and throat, head, and junctures (sandhi) respectively (21.12-14);²²⁵ the qualities of kapha (21.15); ²²⁶ the main seats (liver and spleen) and function of blood (21.16); the qualities of blood: neither hot nor cold, sweet (madhura), oleaginous (snigdha), red in colour, heavy (guru), of a musty smell (visra), and with a vidāha like that of pitta $(21.17)^{227}$

The second part of the chapter is devoted to the six stages of development of a disease, which are called kriyākāla because they necessitate treatment. 228 The symptoms of accumulation (samcaya) of the dosas, the first stage, are described (21.18);²²⁹ the second stage, excitement (prakopa) of the dosas, is elaborately discussed; the factors leading to excitement of each of the dosas and blood are separately enumerated, followed each time by the seasons, parts of day and night, and stages of the digestive process during which this excitation is likely to occur (21.19-26); the symptoms of excitament are listed (21.27); the third stage, spread (prasara) of the dosas, ²³⁰ impelled by vata, throughout the body, shows fifteen varieties, dependent on the number of dosas involved²³¹ and all their combinations (21.28); the way morbid changes (vikāra) are produced during this stage, their management, and the signs indicating prasara are dealt with (21.29-32); the fourth stage is called sthānasamśraya because localized disorders, or even generalized ones, begin to appear; these disorders may affect a particular part of the body or one of the seven elements; the characteristic sign of this stage is the prodrome (pūrvarūpa) (21.33); the fifth stage (vyakti)²³² is characterized by the appearance of the fully manifest signs (pravyaktalaksana)²³³ of particular diseases (21.34); the sixth stage (bheda)²³⁴ is that in which sores appear and generalized diseases become chronic (21.35); a good physician is he who has acquired an accurate knowledge 1 Sūtrasthāna 215

of these six stages (21.36).

The dosas should be eliminated in the stage of accumulation in order to prevent that the next steps of the process are reached (21.37). A partially excited dosa may get more excited when it comes in contact with a (completely) excited one (21.38).²³⁵ The most excited one of a combination of dosas should be counteracted first (21.39).

The chapter ends with the etymology of the term vrana (21.40).

Chapter twenty-two (vraṇāsrāvavijīānīya) is about sores, their discharges (srāva), ²³⁶ and some other subjects.

Subjects dealt with are: the eight substrates (vastu) of sores; skin, muscular tissue. sirās, snāvus, osseous tissue, junctures (sandhi), viscera (kostha), and vital spots (marman) (22.3); ²³⁷ a sore in the first of these substrates, which makes the skin burst, is easy to treat; sores in the remaining substrates are difficult to manage (22.4);²³⁸ the shapes (ākrti) of sores: oblong (āyata), rectangular (caturasra), round (vitta), triangular (triputaka); sores with other, irregular shapes (vikrtākrti) are difficult to treat (22.5); ²³⁹ sores heal rapidly when the patient keeps to the rules concerning diet and conduct and when the physician is competent (22.6); the characteristic features of corrupted sores (dustavrana): a very narrow opening (atisamvrta), a very wide opening (ativivrta), excessive induration (atikathina), excessive softness (atimrdu), excessive elevation (atyutsanna), excessive depression (atyavasanna), excessive coldness (atiśīta), excessive heat (atyusna), a fierce (bhairava) aspect due to the presence of a black, red, yellow, white, or other colour, being filled with foul-smelling (pūti) pus (pūva).²⁴⁰ muscular tissue, sirās, snāyus, etc., and discharging foul-smelling pus, deviation from the usual track (unmargin), 241 a pouchy aspect (utsangin), 242 an unpleasant (amanojña) aspect and smell, severe pain (vedanā), association with an excessive burning sensation, suppuration (pāka), redness (rāga), itching, swelling, and boils (pidakā), a discharge of corrupted blood, and chronicity (dīrghakālānubandhin); ²⁴³ these types should be arranged in six groups, dependent on the excess (ucchrāya) of the dosa(s) involved,²⁴⁴ and treated accordingly (22.7); types of discharge (srāva) according to the substrate of the sore and the dosa(s) involved (22.8);²⁴⁵ incurable discharges (22.9-10); types of painful sensations (vedanā), caused by vāta, pitta, blood, kapha, and all the dosas together (22.11); 246 the colours of sores, dependent on the dosa(s) involved (22.12). 247

The chapter ends with a verse expounding that the characteristics of sores as described also apply to all kinds of swelling (sopha) (22.13).

Chapter twenty-three (kṛtyākṛtyavidhi) is devoted to tractable (kṛtya) and intractable (akṛtya) (lesions).

Its subjects are: the qualities of an easily curable patient (23.3); ²⁴⁸ the opposite qualities, leading to incurability (23.4); ²⁴⁹ sites where sores easily heal (23.5); sites, along with other features, which make sores difficult to treat (duścikitsya) (23.6); other conditions making sores curable with difficulty (23.7); conditions making sores amenable to palliative treatment (yāpya) only (23.8); without treatment, curable sores become palliable, palliable ones incurable, and incurable ones fatal (23.9); the

definition of palliability (23.10–11); features of incurable sores (23.12); ²⁵⁰ some kinds of āgantu (traumatic) sores which are curable, whereas the same kinds caused by the doṣas are incurable (23.13); a sore that spreads (to other elements of the body) and becomes deep-seated should be regarded as incurable (23.14–16); sores with opposite qualities are easily curable (23.17); the characteristics of a clean (śuddha), healing, and healed (samyagrūḍha) sore (23.18–20); causes making a healed sore re-open (23.21).

Chapter twenty-four (vyādhisamuddeśīya) discusses the classification of diseases.

Diseases are of two categories: curable by surgical means (śastrasādhya) and curable by means of oleation and related procedures; oleation, etc., are not contraindicated in the first category, but surgery should not be carried out if oleation, etc., are thought to be adequate (24.3).

All the diseases will be dealt with in this treatise. As already mentioned, ²⁵¹ disease (vyādhi) is a condition associated with suffering (duḥkhasanyoga). This suffering is of three types: ādhyātmika (of internal origin), ādhibhautika (of external origin) and ādhidaivika (of celestial or divine origin). ²⁵² These types are divided into seven groups: ādibalapravṛtta, janmabalapravṛtta, doṣabalapravṛtta, sanghātabalapravṛtta, kālabalapravṛtta, daivabalapravṛtta, and svabhāvabalapravṛtta (24.4). ²⁵³

Ādibalapravṛtta are the diseases resulting from a defect (doṣa) of semen (śukra) or female procreational fluid (śoṇita), which means that they are transmitted by one of the parents; examples are kuṣṭha and arśas (haemorrhoids). Janmabalapravṛtta diseases result from transgressions (apacāra) of the mother (during pregnancy); they are either caused by the rasa (derived from an improper diet) or neglect of the pregnant woman's cravings (dauhṛda); examples are paṅgu (lameness), jātyandha (congenital blindness), badhira (deafness), mūka (dumbness), minmina (a nasal voice), and vāmana (dwarfism). Doṣabalapravṛtta are the diseases arising from (an already present) illness (ātaṅka), 254 as well as those caused by a faulty diet (āhāra) and conduct (ācāra); they are of two kinds again: originating from the āmāśaya or the pakvāśaya; they are of two kinds too when distinguished into bodily and mental ones. 255 These three groups together constitute the diseases called ādhyātmika.

Samghātabalapravṛtta are those āgantu ²⁵⁶ disorders which are caused by contests (vigraha) of a weaker with a stronger one; they are of two kinds: brought about by sharp objects (śastra) ²⁵⁷ and by wild animals (vyāla). ²⁵⁸ These are the disorders called ādhibhautika.

Kālabalapravṛtta are the disorders caused by cold, heat, wind, rain, the heat of the sun (ātapa), etc.; they are of two kinds: arising from seasonal abnormalities (vyāpannartuka) or arising (even) when the seasons are normal. ²⁵⁹

Daivabalapravrtta are the disorders resulting from offenses against the gods ²⁶⁰ (devadroha), curses (abhiśaptaka), Atharvavedic charms (atharvaṇa), and upasarga; ²⁶¹ they are of two kinds: caused by lightning and thunder, or by Piśācas and other (malevolent beings); they are of two kinds again when divided into saṃsargaja ²⁶² and ākasmika. ²⁶³

Svabhāvabalapravrtta diseases are of natural origin: hunger, thirst, ageing, death,

217

sleep, etc.; they are of two kinds: occurring at the proper time (kālaja) or at an improper time (akālaja); they appear in those taking care of themselves (parirakṣaṇa) or those neglecting the rules regarding health respectively. These are the disorders called ādhidaivika (24.7).

All the diseases are rooted in vāta, pitta and kapha; in the same way all the evolutes (vikāra) derive from sattva, rajas and tamas. ²⁶⁴ The diversity of the diseases arises from the interplay (samsarga) among doṣas, dhātus and malas, the specificity of their seats (āyatanaviśeṣa), and their (various) causes (nimitta). They are called after the dhātu that has been corrupted by a dosa (24.8).

Disorders (vikāra) arising from a corrupted condition (doṣa) of rasa, rakta, ²⁶⁵ māmsa, medas, asthi, majjā, and śukra ²⁶⁶ are enumerated, followed by those appearing when the seats of the malas ²⁶⁷ and indriyas (senses)²⁶⁸ are in a corrupted condition (24.9).

Diseases arise there, where the excited dosas, circulating in the body, get obseructed due to an abnormality (vaigunya) of the channels (kha) (24.10). Diseases are always associated with the dosas, but the production (utpatti) of a disease can only come about in the presence of an accessory cause (nimitta) (24.11).

Chapter twenty-five (astavidhaśastrakarmīya) is devoted to the eight surgical procedures (śastrakarman). ²⁶⁹

The subjects are: disorders to be treated by means of excision (chedya), incision (bhedya), scarification (lekhya), puncturing (vedhya), probing (esya), extraction (āhārya), drainage (srāvya), and suturing (sīvya) (25.3–17ab); ²⁷⁰ contra-indications for suturing (25.17cd-18ab); wound toilet before suturing (25.18cd-19); the technique of suturing and the materials to be used (25.20-21); various types of suturing: vellitaka (curved), ²⁷¹ gophanikā (reinforcing), ²⁷² tunnasevanī (a suture of the darning type), ²⁷³ rjugranthi (interrupted), ²⁷⁴ etc. (25.22); the three types of suturing needles (sūcī): circular (vrttā), straight (āyatā), and semicircular (dhanurvakrā); the uses of these types (25.23–25ab); the correct distance to be observed in making a suture (25.25cd–26); ²⁷⁵ after-treatment: dressing, powdering (pratisarana) and bandaging (25.27-28); the four misfortunes (vyāpad) of surgical interventions: incisions that are too small (hīna), too large (atirikta), or slanting (tiryañc), and self-injury on the part of the physician as the fourth type (25.30); complications due to errors of the surgeon (25.31-32); the signs of injury to vital spots in general (marman), sirās, snāyus, junctures (sandhi), bones, and a māmsamarman (25.33-40); self-injury (25.41); care to be taken with regard to sharp instruments (25.42); the importance of trust (viśvāsa) on the part of the patient (25.43-44); the praise of a reliable physician (25.45); the occasional necessity of having recourse to more than one surgical intervention (25.46).

Chapter twenty-six (pranastaśalyavijñānīya) is devoted to the knowledge about śalyas²⁷⁶ invisibly lodged (pranasta) (in the body). ²⁷⁷

The subjects discussed are: the etymology of the term salya (26.3); the two types of salya: arising within the body (sārīra) and coming from outside (āgantuka) (26.4); anything giving rise to pain (ābādha) all over the body is called salya, and salyasāstra is the

science concerned with śalyas (26.5). The śārīra type of śalya consists of teeth, hairs, nails, etc., as well as corrupted bodily elements (dhātu), foods (anna), impurities (mala) and doṣas; all the other ones belong to the āgantuka type (26.6); the āgantuka śalyas may be (pieces of) metal (loha), bamboo (veṭu), wood (vṛkṣa), grass, horn or bone; out of these, the metallic ones, and among the metallic ones, arrows (śara), should be taken into consideration primarily; arrows are oftwo types: barbed (karnin) and smooth (ślakṣṇa), and of various shapes (26.7); 278 the five directions from which a śalya may enter the body (26.8); the sites where it may lodge (26.9); the general features after entry; the specific signs of a śalya lodged in the skin, muscular tissue, a muscular belly (peśī), a sirā, snāyu, srotas, or dhamanī, a bone, a cavity within a bone (asthivivara), a juncture, the viscera (koṣṭha), or a marman (26.10); prognostic features (26.11); procedures for detecting śalyas which are invisibly lodged somewhere within the body (26.12); general tests which may be helpful in localizing a śalya (26.13); other signs indicating the site of a śalya (26.14–15); exploration of the track with a probe (eṣaṇī) (26.16–17); sequelae of unextracted śalyas (26.18–22).

Chapter twenty-seven (śalyāpanayanīya) 279 is about the removal (apanayana) of śalyas. 280

The subjects dealt with are: the two types of salya: fixed (avabaddha) and loose (anavabaddha) (27.3); the fifteen measures for the removal (uddharana) of loose salyas: svabhāva (natural bodily functions), pācana (maturation), bhedana (incision), dārana (causing a burst), pīdana (squeezing), pramārjana (cleansing), nirdhmāpana (blowing), vamana (emesis), virecana (purgation), praksālana (irrigation), pratimarśa, 281 pravāhana (straining), ācūsana (sucking), ayaskānta (a magnet), and harsa (cheering) (27.4); indications for each of these measures (27.5); two ways of removing (āharaṇa) a śalya: in the opposite direction (pratiloma) or in the direction of entry (anuloma); ²⁸² indications for the pratiloma and anuloma techniques (27.6-7); a sharp-pointed (chedanīyamukha) śalya, if protruding (uttundita), should be manually removed after making an incision (27.8); the same type of salva ²⁸³ is to be removed manually through its own track if lodged in the belly (kuksi). ²⁸⁴ chest, an armpit (kaksā), groin (yaṅksana), or intercostal space (parśukāntara) (27.9); if manual removal proves to be impossible, then the track should be widened with a sharp instrument and the salya removed with a blunt instrument (27.10); measures to be taken if the patient faints (27.11); post-operative care; the techniques to be employed in some difficult cases (27.12);²⁸⁵ the removal of a salya located in the vicinity of the heart (27.13); the removal of a salya that has penetrated into the cavity of a bone or has got a stuck in a bone; the shaft (vāraṅga) of such a salya should be tied to a bow-string, the other end of which is to be fastened to the rein of a horse with a pañcāngī bandage; ²⁸⁶ the horse should be whipped, and, when it lifts its head forcibly, the salva comes out; or, a strong branch of a tree should be bent and tied to the salva, which comes out when the branch straightens (27.14); ²⁸⁷ a protruding (uttundita) salya, located where it cannot be removed surgically, should be loosened by strokes of an asthīlā.²⁸⁸ stone or mallet (mudgara), and removed through its own track by means of a blunt instrument (27.15); the extraction of barbed arrows (27.16); the removal of lac (jātusa) from the throat by means of a heated śalākā inserted into a hollow

1 Stitrasthāna 219

tube; a related method for the removal of other substances (27.17–18); the removal of a salya consisting of bone or a similar substance when stuck up in the throat (27.19); treatment of a patient whose belly is filled up with water (27.20); ²⁸⁹ the treatment to be applied when a morsel of food (grāsaśalya) is surested in the throat (27.21); treatment of strangling (27.22). The chapter ends with some general directions (27.23–26).

Chapter twenty-eight (viparītāviparītavraṇavijñānīya), the first of a series of chapters on (a)riṣṭas, ²⁹⁰ is concerned with the knowledge about signs indicating an unfavourable prognosis in patients with sores (vrana).

The chapters opens with some general verses on ristas, which are signs pointing to a fatal outcome in due course of time. The effects of aristas can be overcome only by brāhmaṇas without any blemish, who are experts in rasāyana, ascetic practices (tapas) and japya²⁹¹ (28.3–7).

Subjects dealt with are: deviations from the normal smells, colours and tastes point to a bad prognosis in patients with sores (28.8); the normal smells of sores associated with one or more of the doṣas and blood (28.9–10); ²⁹² unfavourable smells (28.11–12); ²⁹³ unfavourable characteristics of sores associated with pitta, kapha and vāta (28.13–15); other bad signs (28.16–18ab); to be rejected are patients with sores shaped like a spear (śakti), ²⁹⁴ banner (dhvaja), ²⁹⁵ chariot (ratha), javelin (kunta), ²⁹⁶ horse, elephant, cow, bullock, or prāsāda, ²⁹⁷ as well as those with sores that appear as covered with powder (cūrṇa) (28.18cd–19); general characteristics of patients with sores who should not be accepted for treatment (28.20); a patient should be discarded when his sores do not heal in spite of proper treatment (28.21).

Chapter twenty-nine (viparītāviparītasvapnanidarśanīya) is about prognostic signs relating to the messenger (dūta) ²⁹⁸ and to dreams (svapna). ²⁹⁹

Subjects dealt with are: the factors of prognostic significance in the messenger and the physician (29.3-4); similarity with regard to faith, 300 stage of life (āśrama) and social class (varna) indicates success in treatment, the reverse portends failure (29.5); various unfavourable characteristics of messengers (29.6-15ab); characteristics of the physician which make the approach of a messenger betoken evil (29.15-19); differences in the meaning of particular characteristics of a messenger, dependent on the dosa that prevails in the disease of the patient (29.20-21); favourable signs relating to messenger and physician (29.22-26); auspicious omina observed by the physician on his way to the patient (29.27-31);³⁰¹ auspicious and inauspicious omina relating to birds and other animals (29.32-37); 302 unfavourable sights observed by the physician on his way (29.38-40); favourable and unfavourable winds (29.41); favourable and unfavourable words and sounds (29.42-44); inauspicious omina observed when the physician arrives at or departs from the patient's house (29.45-48); bad oming observed within the patient's house (29.49–53ab); 303 unfavourable dreams dreamt by the patient or those friendly disposed to him or her (29.54cd-66); dreams having no prognostic significance (aphalada)³⁰⁴ are those which are in conformity with one's constitution (prakrti), 305 forgotten (vismrta), superimposed by another dream (vihata), 306 produced by anxiety (cinta), 307 and experienced by day 308 (29.67); dreams indicating a fatal prognosis of particular diseases (29.62–71ab); ³⁰⁹ means of warding off the effects of inauspicious dreams: gifts to brāhmaṇas, ³¹⁰ the muttering of auspicious mantras and the tripadā gāyatrī, thinking of auspicious things or Veda recitation, ³¹¹ keeping silent about the dream, staying at a temple for three nights, and worship of brāhmaṇas (29.71cd–74); auspicious dreams (29.75–81).

Chapter thirty (pañcendriyārthavipratipatti) is devoted to unfavourable prognostic signs connected with the five senses. ³¹²

Subjects discussed are: signs related to hearing (30.4–6), the tactile sense (30.7–10), taste (30.11–12), smelling (30.13–14ab), and vision (30.15cd–23). One verse (30.14cd–15ab) is about the perception of qualities opposite to the actually present ones.

Chapter thirty-one (chāyāvipratipatti) is about unfavourable types of chāyā³¹³ and various other prognostic signs.

Unfortunate signs are: the sudden appearance of a śyāvā, lohitikā (reddish), nīlā (dark-blue) or pītikā (yellowish) chāyā (31.3); ³¹⁴ the unaccountable loss of particular character traits, such as modesty (hrī), memory (smṛti), and resolution (dhṛti), and the loss of aspects of the outward appearance, such as lustre (prabhā) of the complexion and beauty (śrī), or their sudden emergence (31.4). ³¹⁵

A series of unfavourable signs pointing to imminent death are described. Some of these signs relate to the appearance of the lips (31.5), ³¹⁶ teeth (31.6), ³¹⁷ tongue (31.7), ³¹⁸ nose (31.8), ³¹⁹ eyes (31.9), ³²⁰ hairs, brows and eyelashes (31.10). ³²¹ Other signs consist of various pathological phenomena: the inability to swallow food and to keep the head steady (31.11), ³²² fainting fits (saṃmoha) (31.12), ³²³ changes in the sleeping posture (31.13), respiratory abnormalities (31.14), ³²⁴ sleep disorders (31.15), ³²⁵ talking with ghosts (31.16), haemorrhages (31.17), a vātāṣṭhīlā in the cardiac region (31.18), ³²⁶ an oedema (śopha) spreading over the body upwards or downwards (31.19), ³²⁷ a series of complications of śvāsa (respiratory disorders) (31.20), excessive sweating, a burning sensation, and hiccup or śvāsa in a strong patient (31.21).

The remaining subjects are: signs of imminent death (31.22–26); ³²⁸ some syndromes pointing to a fatal outcome within a short time (31.27–29); factors leading to the death of living beings (31.30); malevolent beings haunting those who are about to die (31.31–32).

Chapter thirty-two (svabhāvavipratipatti) describes various fatal signs, consisting of changes in the normal features (svabhāva) of a number of parts of the body (32.3), followed by a long list of prognostically very bad signs (32.4–6).³²⁹

Chapter thirty-three (avāraṇīya) ³³⁰ discusses disorders which become untreatable, ³³¹ except by means of rasāyana, because of the presence of complications (upadrava) (33.3).

Subjects discussed are: the eight major diseases (mahāgada); vātavyādhi (vāta dis-

eases), prameha (urinary disorders), kuṣṭha (a group of skin diseases), arśas (haemorrhoids), bhagandara (ano-rectal fistulas), aśmarī (vesical calculi), mūḍhagarbha (foetal malpresentations), and udara (a group of abdominal disorders) (33.4–5ab); ³³² complications that should be rejected for treatment (33.5cd–6); fatal complications of each of the eight major diseases (33.7–14); untreatable complications of jvara (fever) (33.15–18), atīsāra (diarrhoea) (33.19), yakṣman (wasting diseases) (33.20), gulma (33.21), vidradhi (an abscess) (33.22), pānduroga (morbid pallor) (33.23), raktapitta (haemorrhagic disorders) (33.24), unmāda (insanity) (33.25), and apasmāra (epilepsy) (33.26).

Chapter thirty-four (yuktasenīya)³³³ is concerned with the duties of a royal physician and army surgeon, ³³⁴ as well as with the four pillars of treatment.

The subjects discussed are: the duty of a physician to protect a king, his chief officials (amātya) and his army, when this king plans to conquer the enemy (34.3-4): 335 the physician should in particular protect the king from being poisoned (34.4); 336 everything likely to be poisoned by the enemy should be purified by the physician (34.5);³³⁷ poisons will be discussed in the Kalpasthāna (34.6ab); the Atharvaveda experts acknowledge one hundred and one kinds of death, ³³⁸ only one of which is natural (kālasamyukta), while all the rest are due to āgantu agencies; the physician (vaidya) and the priest (purohita), experts in rasa³³⁹ and mantra respectively, should protect the king from dying by dosa ja and agantu ja disorders (34.6cd-8ab); Brahma expounded the eight-limbed āyurveda, which is a vedānga; this implies that a physician should act in accordance with the opinions of the purohita (34.8cd-9ab); the importance of a king; the preservation of his life is all-important (34.9cd-12ab); the duties of an army surgeon in the camp (skandhāvāra)³⁴⁰ (34.12cd-14ab); a physician who has mastered other sciences than medicine deserves to be praised by the king and the experts (34.14cd-15ab); the physician, the patient, the drug and the attendant as the four pillars (pāda) on which the success of treatment depends 341 (34.15cd-16ab); the physician holds the most prominent place among the four, like the adhvaryu among the group of priests at an adhvara; ³⁴² he is, even when quite alone, able to save a patient, like a helmsman without the crew can save a ship (34.16cd-19ab); good qualities of a physician, patient, drug and attendant (34.19cd-24).

Chapter thirty-five (āturopakramaṇīya) contains an exposition on general principles related to treatment (upakramaṇa).

Subjects dealt with are: before beginning treatment, a patient's āyus (life expectancy) should be examined; when no dangerous signs with regard to a patient's āyus can be detected, the physician should proceed to an examination of the disease, the season, the digestive fire, age, bodily strength, sattva, sātmya, and constitution (prakṛti) (of the patient), the drug, and the type of country (35.3); general features of persons with a long life expectancy; those with opposite features have a short, those with features intermediate between the two extremes a moderate life expectancy (35.4); ³⁴³ more characteristics of a long-lived person (35.5–6); ³⁴⁴ features of persons with a moderate ³⁴⁵ (35.7–9ab) and short life span ³⁴⁶ (35.9cd–11); the standard measurements (pramāṇa) of various parts of the human body; the major parts (aṅga)

are the trunk (antarādhi), lower extremities (sakthi), upper extremities (bāhu), and head; the subdivisions are the minor parts (pratyanga); the yardstick is (the breadth of) the patient's own finger (angula); the total length of the (male) human body is 120 angula³⁴⁷ (35.12);³⁴⁸ the human male attains complete bodily maturity in his twentyfifth, the female in her sixteenth year (35.13); those whose bodily measurements are in conformity with the standards are long-lived and acquire great wealth (vitta); the life expectancy and material welfare are moderate, respectively inferior, in those with medium or inferior proportions (35.14-15); the physical and mental characteristics of persons with a sattvasāra, śukrasāra, majjasāra, asthisāra, medahsāra, māmsasāra, raktasāra, and tvaksāra; their life-expectancy and welfare (saubhāgya) decrease in the mentioned order (35.16);³⁴⁹ the classification of diseases into curable ones (sādhya). palliable ones (yāpya), and those to be rejected (for treatment) (pratyākhyeya); their classification into aupasargika, prākkevala and anyalaksana; an aupasargika disease is added to an already existing disease, has the same basis (mūla) as the primary one, and is called upadrava (complication); a prākkevala disease is devoid of prodromes and complications; an anyalaksana disease forecasts a future disease and consists of prodromes; an aupasargika disease needs a type of treatment that is not in disagreement with the primary one, or the complication should be treated first; a prākkevala disease should be treated on its own merits; an anvalaksana disease should be treated like the particular disease in this early stage of its development (35.18); ³⁵⁰ any disease should be treated according to the dosa(s) involved (35.19); treatment according to the seasons (35.20-22); the definition of correct treatment (35.23); the four types of digestive fire: unaffected by the dosas (dosānabhipanna) or affected by these; it is visama (irregular) when affected by vāta, tīksna (sharp) when affected by pitta, manda (sluggish) when affected by kapha; the characteristic features of these types and those of an excessively (burning) digestive fire (atyagni) (35.24); 351 a visama fire gives rise to vāta diseases, a tīksna fire to pitta diseases, a manda fire to kapha diseases (35.25); the treatment of disorders of the digestive fire (35.26); the divine nature of the digestive fire, its subtlety and invisibility; its is stirred up and protected by prāna, apāna and samāna (35.27-28); the stages of life (vayas) are youth (balva), adulthood (madhya) and old age (yrddha); 352 youth extends up to the sixteenth year of life; the young are classified into those drinking milk only (ksīrapa), those both drinking milk and taking solid food (ksīrānnāda) and those taking solid food only (annāda); the first group consists of infants up to the end of the first year of life, the second group of those in their second year, the third of those who are older; adulthood is divided into four stages: growth (vrddhi), up to twenty years, young adulthood (yauvana), up to thirty years, maturity (sampūrnatā), up to forty years, and gradual deterioration (parihāni), up to seventy years; the signs of old age are described (35.29); 353 the dosages of medicines should be increased progressively with the advance of age, but when deterioration is present, the dosages to be prescribed are the same as those in the first stage of life (35.30); kapha increases in the young, pitta in the adult, vāta in the elderly; this should be taken into consideration before beginning treatment; cauterization, treatment with caustics and purgatives should in general be avoided in the young and the elderly, but, when necessary, applied in a 1 Sūtrasthāna 223

mild form (35.31–32); the general physique is obese (sthūla), lean (kṛśa), or average (madhya); this general physical type and a patient's bodily strength (bala) or weakness are factors influencing treatment (35.33–36); characteristics of sāttvika, rājasa and tāmasa individuals in relation to treatment (35.37–38); sātmya is defined; several types are mentioned: deśa-, kāla-, jāti-, ttu-, roga-, vyāyāma-, udaka-, divāsvapna-(day-sleep), rasasātmya, etc. (35.39–40); ³⁵⁴ constitutions and drugs are topics to be discussed later on (35.41); the three types of country: ānūpa, jāṅgala and sādhāraṇa; their description and some rules concerning one's residence (35.42–45); ³⁵⁵ features which characterize easily curable (sukhasādhya) diseases, incurable ones and those which are difficult to cure (35.46–47); therapeutic procedures should be tried one after another and never simultaneously (35.48–49).

Chapter thirty-six (bhūmipravibhāg $\bar{y}a$) 356 is about the classification of soils 357 and some other subjects.

The subjects dealt with are: the type of soil most suitable to the collection of medicinal plants; selection criteria for these plants (36.3), 358 the characteristics of soils in which one of the five mahābhūtas predominates (36.4); the opinion of some experts that roots, leaves, barks (tvac), milky juices (ksīra), heartwoods (sāra), and fruits should be collected in the seasons of pravrs (early raining season), varsah (rainy season), sarad (autumn), hemanta (winter), vasanta (spring), and grīsma (summer) respectively; 359 the rejection of this opinion, on account of the saumya or agneya character of everything in the world; saumya drugs are to be collected in saumya seasons, agneya drugs in agneya seasons 360 (36.5); purgative drugs should be taken from soils with a predominance of earth and water, emetics from soils with a predominance of fire, ākāśa and air; soils possessing a combination of these properties produce drugs with both types of action; ³⁶¹ soils in which ākāśa predominates produce samśamana drugs (36.6); all drugs should be used when still in a fresh state; exceptions are honey, ghee, treacle (guda), pippalī and vidanga, which are beneficial when old; honey, etc., of at least one year old, should be taken when older samples are unavailable (36.7-9); 362 information on the identity (vyakti) of drugs may be collected from cowherds, ascetics, hunters, forest-dwellers and those living on food of vegetable origin (36.10); drugs all parts of which can be employed medicinally, may be collected in all seasons (36.11); 363 some generalities on soils and the drugs growing in them; the unmanifest (avvakta) taste of water, which becomes manifest due to the taste of a particular kind of soil (36.12-15);³⁶⁴ medicinal substances of animal origin should be collected from grown-up individuals; their milk, urine and faeces should be collected after digestion of the food (36.16); rules for the room in which drugs are stored (36.17). 365

Chapter thirty-seven $(miśraka)^{366}$ is devoted to miscellaneous prescriptions.

The subjects dealt with are: pralepas against swellings (sopha) due to the dosas, blood and a trauma (37.3–7); ³⁶⁷ some rules for the application of these pralepas (37.8); applications which are pācana (37.9), dāraṇa (making a swelling burst) (37.10), ³⁶⁸ and prapīdana (having a squeezing effect) (37.11); prescriptions which are sodhana (purifying): kasāyas (decoctions) (37.12), ³⁶⁹ vartis ³⁷⁰ and kalkas (pastes) (37.13–15),

a medicated ghee (37.16–17ab), a medicated oil (37.17cd–18), cūrṇas (powders) (37.19), and rasakriyās (inspissated juices) (37.20); ³⁷¹ dhūpana (fumigation) of a vraṇa (37.21); prescriptions which are ropaṇa (promoting the healing of sores): śrtas (decoctions) and śītakaṣāyas (cold infusions) (37.22), ³⁷² vartis (37.23), kalkas (37.24), a medicated ghee (37.25) and oil (37.26), ³⁷³ cūrṇas (37.27–28), rasakriyās (37.29); drugs used for the purpose of utsādana (the promotion of granulation) (37.30) ³⁷⁴ and avasādana (the removal of an excess of granulation tissue) (37.31–32). ³⁷⁵

Chapter thirty-eight (dravyasarıngrahanīya) lists thirty-seven groups (gaṇa)³⁷⁶ of drugs and their medicinal actions. ³⁷⁷

These groups, named after their first member, and their actions, are described: vidārigandhādi (38.4-5), 378 āragvadhādi (38.6-7), sālasārādi (38.8-9), 379 varuṇādi (38.10-11), vīratarvādi (38.12-13), 380 rodhrādi (38.14-15), arkādi (38.16-17), surasādi (38.18-19), muṣkakādi (38.20-21), pippalyādi (38.22-23), 381 elādi (38.24-25), vacādi and haridrādi (38.26-28), śyāmādi (38.29-30), bṛhatyādi (38.31-32), patolādi (38.33-34), kākolyādi (38.35-36), ūṣakādi (38.37-38), sārivādi (38.39-40), aṇjanādi (38.41-42), parūṣakādi (38.43-44), priyangvādi and ambaṣṭhādi (38.45-47), nyagrodhādi (38.48-49), guḍūcyādi (38.50-51), utpalādi (38.52-53), mustādi (38.54-55), the group called triphalā (38.56-57), the group called tripkaļadi (38.60-61), trapvādi (38.62-63), lākṣādi (38.64-65), the smaller (laghu) pañcamūla group (38.66-67), 382 the greater (mahat) pañcamūla group (38.68-69), the actions of the daśamūla groups (38.70-71), the vallī- and kaṇṭakapañcamūla groups (38.72-74), the tṛṇapañcamūla group (38.75-76); 383 the actions on the doṣas of the five pañcamūla groups (38.77).

A passage that may be interpolated ³⁸⁴ says that trivit, etc., will be described elsewhere (38.78). The drugs mentioned will be described in more detail in the Cikitsāsthāna; they may be used in decoctions, medicated oils, etc. (38.79–80).

Drugs should be carefully stored (38.81).³⁸⁵

The drugs mentioned in the groups may be prescribed singly or incombination with other items of the same group, a group of drugs may be prescribed singly or combined with another group or other groups, etc. (38.82), 386

Chapter thirty-nine (saṃśodhanasaṃśamanīya) is devoted to drugs which purify or pacify (the dosas).

The subjects dealt with are: medicinal plants which eliminate (the doṣas) along the upper route (ūrdhvabhāgahara); the parts of the plants used (39.3); those which eliminate them along the lower route (adhobhāgahara); the parts used (39.4); those which eliminate them along both routes (ubhayatobhāgahara); the juices (svarasa) of these plants should be used (39.5); drugs which evacuate the head (śirovirecana); the parts of the plants to be used; non-vegetable substances (39.6); drugs which pacify vāta, pitta, kapha (39.7–9); general principles in determining the adequate dosage for a particular patient (39.10–13); the standard dosages for a patient whose (disease, digestive fire and physical strength) are average³⁸⁷ are one añjali³⁸⁸ of a decoction (kvātha), one bi**ē**ā-

1 Sūtrasthāna 225

lapadaka³⁸⁹ of a powder (cūrna), and one akṣa³⁹⁰ of a paste (kalka) (39.14).³⁹¹

Chapter forty (dravyarasaguṇavīryavipākavijñānīya) discusses the subjects mentioned in the title.

Some authorities (ācārya) claim that substance (dravya) is pre-eminent (in pharmacology) for the following reasons: its stability (vyavasthitatva), constancy (mtyatva), maintenance of its generic characteristics (svajātyavasthāna), perceptibility by the five senses (pañcendriyagrahaṇa), its being a container (āśrayatva) (of the tastes, etc.), prescriptability (ārambhasāmarthya), recognition by the śāstras (śāstra-prāmāṇya), successive dependency (of taste, etc.) on substance (kramāpekṣitatva), and curability (of diseases) by component parts of it (ekadeśasādhyatva); shortly, substance is pre-eminent because it is a whole (niravayavatva) and an inherent cause (samavāyikāraṇa) 392 (40.3).

Others do not endorse this view and regard taste (rasa) as being pre-eminent for the following reasons: recognition by the āgamas, recognition by authoritative teachers (upadeśa), inferability (anumāna), and recognition by the sages (ṛṣi); ³⁹³ taste is included in the concept of guna (40.4).

Others again reject this claim and regard potency (vīrya) as pre-eminent, adducing as an argument that it is the power (vaśa) of potency which brings about the actions of drugs (karmanispatti); ³⁹⁴ this potency is of two kinds: hot (uṣṇa) and cold (śīta), in conformity with the agnīṣomīyatva ³⁹⁵ of the universe; some acknowledge the existence of eightkinds of vīrya: cold, hot, oleaginous (snigdha), dry (rūkṣa), clear (viśada), mucilaginous (picchila), mild (mṛdu), and sharp (tīkṣṇa), ³⁹⁶ vīrya, due to the superiority (utkarṣa) of its inherent power, overcomes rasa; ³⁹⁷ this is illustrated by a series of specific examples (40.5)³⁹⁸ and some rules of a more general nature (40.6–8).

Another group of authorities again disagree, considering post-digestive taste (vipāka) to be pre-eminent, because all substances, properly or improperly digested (vipakva) after ingestion, produce good or bad effects. Some advance that each taste is retained during the digestive process. Others hold that vipāka is of three types: sweet (madhura), sour (amla) and pungent (kaṭuka); this view is not correct, because an amla vipāka cannot exist according to the theory of the qualities of the mahābhūtas, while it is also rejected by the authoritative scriptures (āgama); a sour (amla) taste develops when pitta is subject to vidāha; the acceptance of a sour post-digestive taste would have as a consequence that a salty one, which results from vidāha of kapha, should also be acknowledged. The arguments of those asserting that each taste remains unaffected during the digestive process are referred to and rejected, as well as the theory that strong tastes may overpower weak ones.

The authoritative theory (āgama) says that (vi)pāka is either sweet or pungent; the sweet vipāka is heavy, the pungent type is light, in agreement with the two groups of mahābhūtas: earth and water are heavy, the remaining ones light (40.10).

Substances, in which the properties of earth and water dominate during digestion, have a sweet vipāka; when fire, air or ākāśa dominate, the vipāka is of the pungent type (40.11–12).

The four theories described, defended by those who adhere to one particular view

(pṛthaktvadarśin), ought to be regarded as of equal importance by a discriminating physician (40.13). Some drugs excite or alleviate the doṣas by their substance, other drugs by their potency, other ones again by their taste or post-digestive taste (40.14).

Substances are the most important, for all the other factors mentioned are dependent on them as their substrate (40.15–18).

Drugs, well known as to their nature (svabhāva), the actions of which are beyond discussion (amīmāṇṣṣya) and inexplicable (acintya), should, based only on authoritative scripture (āgama), be used with confidence by a physician, without testing them again (40.19–21).

Chapter forty-one (dravyaviśeṣavijñānīya) is devoted to particulars of medicinal substances which manifest themselves due to the predominance of one of the five mahābhūtas.

The subjects dealt with are: properties and actions of substances with a predominance of earth, water, fire, air and ākāśa (41.4); ³⁹⁹ generalities on medicinal substances and their actions (41.5), ⁴⁰⁰ relationships between the mahābhautika composition of drugs and their actions (41.6); ⁴⁰¹ relationships between the doṣas and the mahābhūtas (41.7-10); relationships between the eight potencies and the mahābhūtas; relationships between the post-digestive tastes and the doṣas; the senses suitable to discriminate particular potencies; the effects enabling a physician to determine the post-digestive taste of a medicinal substance (41.11).

Chapter forty-two (rasaviśesavi jñānīya) is devoted to particulars of the tastes.

The subject dealt with are: the mahābhūtas and their guṇas; the doctrine of bhūtānupraveśa; 402 the differentiation of taste (rasa), which is fundamentally of a watery (āpya) character, into six kinds, due to its contact (saṃsarga) with the other four mahābhūtas; the relationships between the tastes and the mahābhūtas 403 (42.3); the relationships between the tastes and the doṣas (42.4–6); the classification of the tastes into saumya and āgneya, as recognized by some authorities (42.7); relationships between actions of the tastes and qualities of the doṣas (42.8); actions of each of the tastes (42.9); characteristic properties and actions of each of the tastes; the effects of the excessive use of (substances with) a particular taste (42.10); 404 lists of substances in which a particular taste predominates (42.11); 405 a brief exposition on the sixty-three combinations of tastes (42.12).

Chapter forty-three (vamanadravyavikalpavijñānīya) is devoted to preparations of emetic drugs (vamanadravya).

Its subjects are: preparations containing madana fruits, which are the best among the fruits with an emetic action (43.3);⁴⁰⁷ preparations with the flowers and fruits of jīmūtaka (43.4),⁴⁰⁸ the fruits ofkuṭaja (43.5)⁴⁰⁹ and kṛtavedhana (43.6),⁴¹⁰ the flowers of ikṣvāku (43.7),⁴¹¹ and various parts of dhāmārgava (43.8);⁴¹² a preparation with the seeds of kṛtavedhana fruits (43.9); general rules concerning these preparations (43.10–11).

Chapter forty-four (virecanadravyavikalpavijāānīya) is devoted to preparations of purgative drugs (virecanadravya).

The subjects are: the best purgative among roots: arunatrivrt, 413 among barks: tilvaka, among fruits: harītakī, among oils: erandataila, among expressed juices: that of kāravellikā, among milky juices (payas): that of sudhā (44.3-4); preparations with trivrt; ⁴¹⁴ preparations useful in vata, pitta and kapha disorders (44.5-6); various preparations (44.7-9); pills (gutikā) (44.10-11); 415 modakas (44.12-13); 416 yūsas (44.14);417 a putapāka preparation (44.15); lehas (44.16-22);418 a modaka (44.23); a leha or gutikā (44.24-26ab); a cūrna (44.26cd-27); 419 an āsava (44.28-30); a surā (44.31-34);⁴²⁰ a medicated sauvīraka (44.35-40ab);⁴²¹ a medicated tusodaka (44.40cd-45); ⁴²² putapāka preparations (44.46-47ab); medicated oils and ghees (44.47cd-49ab);⁴²³ a powder soaked in cow's urine (44.49cd-51);⁴²⁴ a modaka (44.52-54ab); the recipe of trivrdastaka (44.54cd-59);⁴²⁵ a preparation with tilvaka (44.60-62a); 426 preparations with harītakī (44.62-69); preparations with triphalā (44.70-72); preparations with caturangula (44.73b-76ab);⁴²⁷ preparations with erandataila (44.75cd-77); preparations with the milky juice of sudhā (44.78b-86ab); 428 a good purgative for general use (44.87-89); the six forms of pharmaceutical preparation, which are successively weaker in the following order. milky juice (ksīra), expressed juice (rasa), paste (kalka), decoction (śrtakasāya), cold infusion (sītakasāya), and powder (cūrna) (44.90-91).

Chapter forty-five (dravadravyavidhi) is devoted to the description of liquid substances, their properties, and their actions.

The subjects dealt with are: water (45.3-46); 429 milk (45.47-64); 430 dadhi (45.65-83); 431 takra (45.84-89); 432 takrakūrcikā (inspissated takra) 433 and its liquid part (manda) (45.90); kilāta, pīyūsa and morata (45.91); ⁴³⁴ butter (navanīta) (45.92–93); ⁴³⁵ the cream of milk (samtānikā) (45.94); the properties of dadhi, which are dependent on the type of milk used as its source (45.95); the various kinds of ghee (45.96–105); ⁴³⁶ sarpirmanda (the supernatant liquid portion of ghee) (45.106); the properties of old ghee (purānaghrta)⁴³⁷ (45.107–108), kumbhasarpis, ⁴³⁸ and mahāghrta⁴³⁹ (45.109– 111); 440 the properties, actions and uses of oils (taila) (45.112–113), 441 with sesamum oil (tilataila) as the best kind (45.114-130); vasā, medas and majjan (bone marrow) of various animals (45.131); the properties and actions of honey in general (45.132); the eight kinds of honey (45.133–140ab); 442 fresh and old honey (45.140cd–141); honey as the best among the excipients (yogavāhin) (45.142);⁴⁴³ incompatibilities between honey and other substances (45.143-146); the toxicity of immature honey (45.147); 4.44 properties and actions of the sugarcane (45.148); the types of sugarcane. 445 their properties and actions; the tastes of the different parts of the sugarcane (45.149-156); the properties and actions of sugarcane juice, extracted by chewing, 446 extracted by a machine (yāntrika), 447 and by boiling (45.157–158); 448 phānita (inspissated sugarcane juice) (45.159); 449 impure and pure guda (treacle) 450 (45.160-161); matsyandikā, 451 khanda, 452 śarkarā 453 (45.162–165); 454 madhuśarkarā (honey sugar) (45.166); 455 yavāsaśarkarā (45.167); 456 actions of all kinds of sugar (45.168); 457 phānita from madhūka flowers (45.169); the properties and actions of alcoholic beverages (madya)

(45.170–171); 458 mārdvīka, the alcoholic drink prepared from grapes (mṛdvīkā); its properties and actions (45.172–173); 459 khārjūra, the alcoholic drink prepared from dates (kharjūra); its properties and actions (45.174-175ab); 460 the actions of surā (45.175cd–176ab), 461 śvetasurā (45.176cd–177ab), 462 prasannā (45.177cd–178ab), 463 surā made from yava (45.178cd), 464 madhūlaka (45.179ab), 465 ākṣikī (45.179cd), 466 kohala, 467 jagala, 468 and bakkasa 469 (45.180-182ab); the properties and actions of various kinds of sīdhu: 470 gauda (made from guda), 471 śārkara (made from sugar), 472 pakvarasa (made from boiled sugarcane juice),⁴⁷³ śītarasika (made from sugarcane juice that is not boiled), ⁴⁷⁴ āksika, ⁴⁷⁵ and jāmbava ⁴⁷⁶ (45.182cd–187ab); surāsava, ⁴⁷⁷ madhvāsava, 478 maireya, 479 iksurasāsava (made from sugarcane juice), 480 an āsava made from madhūka flowers, 481 āsavas 482 made from various tubers, roots and fruits⁴⁸³ (45.187cd-192ab); the properties and actions of freshly prepared and old alcoholic beverages (45.192cd-194ab); the actions of aristas⁴⁸⁴ in general and of pippalyādyarista (45.194cd-197ab); properties which make an alcoholic preparation unsuitable for medicinal use (45.197cd-200ab); the bad actions of these unsuitable madyas (45.200cd-203ab); the properties and actions of a good alcoholic preparation (45.203cd-204ab); the physiological actions of an alcoholic fluid (45.204cd-205);⁴⁸⁵ its effects in persons with a constitution dominated by kapha, vāta or pitta, 486 and in those with a sāttvika, rājasa or tāmasa mental make-up⁴⁸⁷ (45.206-209); the actions of sukta 488 in general, of medicated suktas, sukta made from guda, (sugarcane) juice, and honey (45.210-212); the actions of tusāmbu⁴⁸⁹ and sauvīraka⁴⁹⁰ (45.213); the actions of dhānyāmla⁴⁹¹ (45.214-216); the properties and actions of the urine of various animals (45.217-228). 492

Chapter forty-six (annapānavidhi) is devoted to articles of diet (and medicinal substances).

The subjects are: the importance of diet (46.3); the properties and actions of the varieties of śāli rice⁴⁹³ (46.4–7), ⁴⁹⁴ ṣaṣṭika rice (46.8–11), ⁴⁹⁵ vrīhi rice (46.12–14), ⁴⁹⁶ śāli grown on burnt fields (46.15), rice growing in a dry type of soil (sthalaja) ⁴⁹⁷ and on irrigated fields (kaidāra) ⁴⁹⁸ (46.16–17), rice which has been transplanted once (ropya) or several times (atiropya) (46.18–19), inferior cereals (kudhānya) ⁴⁹⁹ (46.20–26), ⁵⁰⁰ pulses (vaidala) ⁵⁰¹ (46.27–38), sesamum (tila) (46.39–40), ⁵⁰² barley (yava) ⁵⁰³ and atiyava (46.41–43ab), ⁵⁰⁴ wheat (godhūma) (46.43cd–44ab), ⁵⁰⁵ various kinds of beans (śimba) (46.44cd–48ab), the seeds of kusumbha (46.48cd), linseed (atasī) (46.49ab), white and black mustard seeds (siddhārthaka and asitasarṣapa) (46.49cd–50ab); ⁵⁰⁶ some generalities on all the items from rice up to mustard seeds (46.50cd–52).

The six groups of animals the flesh of which may be used are dealt with next: the aquatic (jaleśaya) animals, those living in regions rich in water (ānūpa), the domestic (grāmya), carnivorous (kravyabhuj), not-cloven-hoofed (ekaśapha) animals, and those living injāngala regions; the flesh of these groups of animals increases in good qualities in the mentioned order.

The animals can also be divided into jāngala and ānūpa; the jāngala group is subdivided into eight subgroups, called respectively janghāla (swift runners), viskira (scat-

terers), pratuda (peckers), guhāśaya (hole-dwellers), prasaha (snatchers), parṇamṛga (tree-dwellers), bileśaya (living in burrows in the earth), and grāmya (domestic);⁵⁰⁷ the most important among them are the janghāla and viskira (46.53).

The properties and actions are described of the flesh of the janghāla (46.54–58), viṣkira (46.59–66), ⁵⁰⁸ pratuda (46.67–71), ⁵⁰⁹ guhāśaya (46.72–73), prasaha (46.74–75), ⁵¹⁰ parṇamṛga (46.76–77), bileśaya (46.78–84), ⁵¹¹ and grāmya animals (46.85–90ab), followed by types of flesh which are abhiṣyandin (secretion-promoting) (46.90cd–92).

The janghāla group of animals ⁵¹² consists of: ena, ⁵¹³ harina, ⁵¹⁴ rkṣa, ⁵¹⁵ kuranga, ⁵¹⁶ karāla, ⁵¹⁷ kṛtamāla, ⁵¹⁸ śarabha, ⁵¹⁹ śvadamṣṭra, ⁵²⁰ pṛṣata, ⁵²¹ cāruṣkara, ⁵²² mṛgamātṛkā, ⁵²³ etc. (46.54).

The viskira group consists of: lāva, ⁵²⁴ tittiri, ⁵²⁵ kapiñjala, ⁵²⁶ vartīra, ⁵²⁷ vartikā, ⁵²⁸ vartaka, ⁵²⁹ naptṛkā, ⁵³⁰ vārtīka, ⁵³¹ cakora, ⁵³² kalaviṅka, ⁵³³ mayūra, ⁵³⁴ krakara, ⁵³⁵ upacakra, ⁵³⁶ kukkuṭa, ⁵³⁷ sāraṅga, ⁵³⁸ śatapattra, ⁵³⁹ kutittiri, ⁵⁴⁰ kuruvāhaka, ⁵⁴¹ yavālaka, ⁵⁴² etc. (46.59).

The pratuda group consists of: kapota, ⁵⁴³ pārāvata, ⁵⁴⁴ bhṛṇgarāja, ⁵⁴⁵ parabhṛta, ⁵⁴⁶ koyaṣṭika, ⁵⁴⁷ kulinga, ⁵⁴⁸ gṛhakulinga, ⁵⁴⁹ gokṣvedaka, ⁵⁵⁰ diṇḍimāṇavaka, ⁵⁵¹ śatapattraka, ⁵⁵² mātṛṇindaka, ⁵⁵³ bhedāśin, ⁵⁵⁴ śuka, ⁵⁵⁵ sārikā, ⁵⁵⁶ valgulī, ⁵⁵⁷ giriśā, ⁵⁵⁸ laṭvā, ⁵⁵⁹ laṭṭūṣaka, ⁵⁶⁰ sugṛhā, ⁵⁶¹ khañjarīṭa, ⁵⁶² hārīta, ⁵⁶³ dātyūha, ⁵⁶⁴ etc. (46.67).

The guhāśaya group consists of: sinha (lion), ⁵⁶⁵ vyāghra(tiger), ⁵⁶⁶ vṛka (wolf), ⁵⁶⁷ tarakṣu (hyena), ⁵⁶⁸ ṛkṣa (bear), ⁵⁶⁹ dvīpin, ⁵⁷⁰ mārjāra (wild cat), ⁵⁷¹ śṛgāla (jackal), ⁵⁷² mrgervāruka, ⁵⁷³ etc. (46.72).

The prasaha group consists of: kāka, ⁵⁷⁴ kanka, ⁵⁷⁵ kurara, ⁵⁷⁶ cāṣa, ⁵⁷⁷ bhāsa, ⁵⁷⁸ śa-śaghātin, ⁵⁷⁹ ulūka, ⁵⁸⁰ cilli, ⁵⁸¹ śyena, ⁵⁸² grdhra, ⁵⁸³ etc. (46.74).

The parnamrga group consists of: madgumūṣika, ⁵⁸⁴ vṛkṣaśāyikā, ⁵⁸⁵ avakuśa, ⁵⁸⁶ pūtighāṣa, ⁵⁸⁷ vānara, ⁵⁸⁸ etc. (46.76).

The bileśaya group consists of: śvāvidh,⁵⁸⁹ śalyaka,⁵⁹⁰ godhā,⁵⁹¹ śaśa,⁵⁹² vṛṣa-daṃśa,⁵⁹³ lopāka,⁵⁹⁴ lomaśakarṇa,⁵⁹⁵ kadalī,⁵⁹⁶ mṛgapriyaka,⁵⁹⁷ ajagara,⁵⁹⁸ sarpa (a snake),⁵⁹⁹ mūṣika (mouse or rat),⁶⁰⁰ nakula,⁶⁰¹ mahābabhru,⁶⁰² etc. (46.78).

The grāmya group consists of: aśva (horse), ⁶⁰³ aśvatara (mule), ⁶⁰⁴ gaus (cow), ⁶⁰⁵ khara (donkey), ⁶⁰⁶ uṣtra (camel), ⁶⁰⁷ basta (goat), urabhra (sheep), medalıpucchaka (fat-tailed sheep), ⁶⁰⁸ etc. (46.85).

The ānūpa animals are subdivided into those called kūlacara (living along banks), plava (divers and swimmers), kośastha (living within shells), pādin (reptiles, crustaceans, etc), and matsva (fishes) (46.93).

The kūlacara group⁶⁰⁹ consists of: ga ja (elephant), ⁶¹⁰ gavaya, ⁶¹¹ mahisa (buffalo), ⁶¹² ruru, ⁶¹³ camara, ⁶¹⁴ sṛṇṇara, ⁶¹⁵ rohita, ⁶¹⁶ varāha (pig), ⁶¹⁷ khadgin (rhinoceros), ⁶¹⁸ gokarṇa, ⁶¹⁹ kālapucchaka, ⁶²⁰ ūdra, ⁶²¹ nyanku, ⁶²² araṇyagavaya, ⁶²³ etc. (46.94).

The plava group consists of: haṃsa,⁶²⁴ sārasa,⁶²⁵ krauñca,⁶²⁶ cakravāka,⁶²⁷ kurara,⁶²⁸ kādamba,⁶²⁹ kāraṇḍava,⁶³⁰ jīvañjīvaka,⁶³¹ baka,⁶³² balākā,⁶³³ puṇḍarīka,⁶³⁴ plava,⁶³⁵ śarārīmukha,⁶³⁶ nandīmukha,⁶³⁷ madgu,⁶³⁸ utkrośa,⁶³⁹ kācākṣa,⁶⁴⁰ mallikākṣa,⁶⁴¹ śuklākṣa,⁶⁴² puṣkaraśāyikā,⁶⁴³ konālaka,⁶⁴⁴ ambukukkutikā,⁶⁴⁵ megharāva,⁶⁴⁶ śvetavārala,⁶⁴⁷ etc. (46.105).

The kośastha group consists of: śańkha,⁶⁴⁸ śańkhanaka,⁶⁴⁹ śukti,⁶⁵⁰ śambūka,⁶⁵¹ bhallūka,⁶⁵² etc. (46.108).

The pādin group consists of: kūrīna (turtle or tortoise), 653 kumbhīra, 654 karkaṭaka (a crab), 655 kṛṣṇakarkaṭaka, śiśumāra, 656 etc. (46.109).

The properties and actions are described of the flesh of the kulacara $(46.94-104)^{657}$ and plava animals. 658 (46.105-107).

The properties and actions of their flesh follow (46.110-111).

The two groups of fishes ⁶⁵⁹ are dealt with: those living in rivers and those living in the sea (46.112); the names of river fishes; the general properties and actions of their flesh; the properties and actions of the flesh of particular river fishes and those living in ponds and lakes (46.113–117); ⁶⁶⁰ the names of sea fishes; the general properties and actions of their flesh (46.118–119); the comparative actions of the flesh of fishes living in rivers, the sea and various water reservoirs (46.120–121); differences among the properties of various body parts of fishes (46.122–124). ⁶⁶¹

River fishes are: ⁶⁶² rohita, ⁶⁶³ pāṭhīna, ⁶⁶⁴ pāṭalā, ⁶⁶⁵ rājīva, ⁶⁶⁶ varmi, ⁶⁶⁷ gomatsya, ⁶⁶⁸ kṛṣṇamatsya, ⁶⁶⁹ vāguñjāra, ⁶⁷⁰ murala, ⁶⁷¹ sahasradaṃṣṭra, ⁶⁷² etc. (46.113).

Sea fishes are: timi, ⁶⁷³ timingila, ⁶⁷⁴ kuliśa, ⁶⁷⁵ pākamatsya, ⁶⁷⁶ nirula, ⁶⁷⁷ nandivāralaka, ⁶⁷⁸ makara, ⁶⁷⁹ gargara, ⁶⁸⁰ candraka, ⁶⁸¹ mahāmīna, ⁶⁸² rājīva, ⁶⁸³ etc. (46.118).

Harmful kinds of flesh are discussed (46.126–128); ⁶⁸⁴ comparative qualities of flesh, depending on the sex and size of the animal (46.129); relative heaviness and lightness of flesh, according to the body part, organ, and sex of the animal (46.130–133); actions on the dosas of the flesh of birds, dependent on their feeding habits (46.134–135); other criteria for assessing particular properties of flesh (46.135cd–138).

The chapter continues with a list of fruits (46.139);⁶⁸⁵ the general properties and actions of these fruits (46.140); the properties and actions of a series of particular fruits (46.141–162); a group of fruits (46.163–165); another series of fruits (46.166–176); a group of fruits (46.177-181); a series of fruits again (46.182-207);⁶⁸⁶ the actions (vīrya) of fruit pulps (majjan) are similar to those of the fruits themselves (46.208); ripe (paripakva) fruits should be used, with the exception of bilva (46.209); fruits should not be used when unripe, over-ripe, etc. (46.210);⁶⁸⁷ the properties and actions of a series of vegetables (śāka) (46.211-220); the pippalyādi group, its general properties and actions (46.221–222); the properties and actions of items of this group (46.223-248); the cuccyādi group, its general properties and actions (46.249-250); the properties and actions of items of this group (46.251-252); the properties and actions of the milky juice of the ksīravrksas, utpala, etc. (46.253); the punarnavādi group, its properties and actions (46.254-255); the tandulīyakādi group, its general properties and actions (46.256–258ab); the properties and actions of items belonging to this group (46.258cd-261); the mandūkaparnyādi group, its general properties and actions (46.262-263); properties and actions of items belonging to this group (46.264–273); the lonikādi group, its general properties and actions (46.274–275); the properties and actions of items belonging to this group (46.276-278);⁶⁸⁸ the actions and properties of tāmbūla (betel leaves) (46.279–280); ⁶⁸⁹ the properties and actions of a series of flowers (46.281–289); ⁶⁹⁰ the properties and actions of the young shoots

(karīra) of a number of plants (46.290-292);⁶⁹¹ the properties and actions of mushrooms (bhūmija), dependent on their substrate (46.293); 692 the actions of pinyāka (oil-cakes), 693 tilakalka (sesamum paste), sthūnikā, 694 dried vegetables (śuskaśāka), all sorts of vatakas (small balls), sindākī⁶⁹⁵ (46.294-295); general properties of vegetables; 696 they are heavier in the following order: flowers, leaves, fruits, stalks (nāla), and tubers (kanda) (46.296); unsuitable vegetables (46.297); a list of tuberous vegetables (kanda); their general properties and actions (46.298-299); the properties and actions of a number of tubers and rhizomes (46.300-309);⁶⁹⁷ the properties and actions of the inner parts of the top portions of the stems (mastakamajjan) of some palms (tāla, nārikela, kharjūra) (46.310-311); ⁶⁹⁸ tubers which are unsuitable (46.312); the salts (lavana), ⁶⁹⁹ their properties and actions in the mentioned order (46.313): ⁷⁰⁰ the properties and actions of particular kinds of salt (46.314-320); 701 three kinds of salt which are known as katulavana: ūṣasūta (originating from an ūṣa type of soil), 702 vālukaila (originating from a sandy soil), 703 and śailamūlākarodbhava (originating from particular inines)⁷⁰⁴ (46.321);⁷⁰⁵ the properties and actions of a number of caustic substances (kṣāra) (46.322-325); ⁷⁰⁶ the properties and actions of gold, silver, copper, bell-metal (kāmsya), iron, tin (trapu) and lead (sīsa), followed by those of some precious and semi-precious stones (mani) (46.326-330);⁷⁰⁷ any substance left without a description should be examined by a physician in order to determine its properties (46.331); the best (prasasta, pravara, srestha) among the substances belonging to a particular group (46.332-339); ⁷⁰⁸ prepared foods, their properties and actions: ⁷⁰⁹ lājamanda (46.340cd–341ab), ⁷¹⁰ peyā (46.341cd–342ab) ⁷¹¹ and vilepī (46.342cd-344ab),⁷¹² followed by distinctive characteristics of these preparations (46.344cd-345ab); ⁷¹³ pāyasa (46.345cd); ⁷¹⁴ kṛśarā (46.346ab); ⁷¹⁵ odana (boiled rice) (46.346cd-349ab); ⁷¹⁶ sūpa (soup) (46.349cd); ⁷¹⁷ prepared vegetables (46.350); meat dishes (46.351–353ab); pariśuskamāmsa (fried or toasted meat) (46.353cd–354ab); ⁷¹⁸ ullupta (46.354cd-355ab); 719 sūlya (broiled on the spit or skewered) and pradigdha meat (46.355cd-356ab), 720 ullupta, bharjita (fried), pista (minced), pratapta (slightly fried), kandupācita (fried with mustard paste), 721 parišuska, pradigdha, śūlya, and other kinds of meat dishes, when prepared with oil or ghee (46.356cd-358); māmsarasa (meat broth) (46.359–361ab); 722 saurāva (46.362); 723 broth without the meat (46.363); khāniska (46.364ab); ⁷²⁴ vesavāra (46.364cd-366ab); ⁷²⁵ mudgayūşa and rāgasādava (46.366cd-368ab); ⁷²⁶ various kinds of yūsa ⁷²⁷ (46.368cd-375); khada and kāmbalika⁷²⁸ (46.376ab); other sour yūṣas, prepared with pomegranate juice, dadhi and takra (46.376cd-377); alcrta- and krtayūsas (46.379); ⁷²⁹ general properties of sour yūsas (46.380); the ingredients of a kāmbalika (46.381ab); general properties of foods prepared with sesamum, dried vegetables, virûdhaka, 730 and sindākī (46.381cd-382); rāgasādavas (46.383); 731 rasālā (46.384ab); 732 dadhi to which guda has been added (46.384cd); the preparation of a mantha, 733 its properties and actions (46.385-388ab);⁷³⁴ various pānakas, their properties and actions (46,388cd-391);⁷³⁵ various kinds of confectionery (bhaksya), their properties and actions;⁷³⁶ confectionery prepared with milk (46.392cd-393ab); 737 ghrtapūra (46.393cd-394ab); 738 confectionery prepared with guda (46.394cd-395ab); ⁷³⁹ madhusīrsaka, ⁷⁴⁰ samyāva, ⁷⁴¹ pūpas ⁷⁴² and modakas (46.395cd-396ab); sattaka (46.396cd-397ab); ⁷⁴³ visyanda (46.397cd-

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398ab);⁷⁴⁴ food preparations called phenaka (46.398cd-400ab),⁷⁴⁵ pālala⁷⁴⁶ and śaskulī⁷⁴⁷ (46.400cd); foods prepared from rice flour (paistika) (46.401), pulses (vaidala) 748 (46.402), māsa beans (46.403ab), kūrcikā 749 (46.403cd), and virūdhaka (sprouted grains) (46.404);⁷⁵⁰ foods prepared with ghee (46.405) or oil (46.406); the properties and actions of some groups of confectionery (46.407); 751 the properties and actions of confectionery prepared in an earthenware pan (kapāla) on a charcoal fire (46.408);⁷⁵² confectionery prepared from kilāta and similar substances (46.409ab); kulmāsa (46.409cd);⁷⁵³ vātya (46.410ab);⁷⁵⁴ dhānā⁷⁵⁵ and ulumbā⁷⁵⁶ (46.410cd); śaktu (46.411-412);⁷⁵⁷ lāja (46.413);⁷⁵⁸ lājasaktu (46.414);⁷⁵⁹ prthuka (46.415);⁷⁶⁰ rice flour (tāndulapista), new and old (46.416-417ab); anupānas (accompanying drinks);⁷⁶¹ general rules concerning the selection of an anupāna (46.419-421ab); the very best among the anupanas is rain (maighya) water, kept in a clean vessel (46.421cd); special rules (46.423-433); the best anupāna is rain (māhendra) water or the water to which one is accustomed; warm water is recommended in vata and kapha disorders, cold water in those caused by pitta or blood (46.434-435ab); advantages of anupānas in general (46.435cd-438ab); the effects of an anupāna taken prior to a meal, during a meal, and afterwards (46.438cd-439ab); the disadvantages of not taking an anupāna (46.439cd-440ab); contra-indications for an anupāna (46.440cd-44lab); behavioural rules for the period after taking an anupāna (46.44lcd-442); heaviness and lightness of articles of diet (46.443-445); rules for the (royal) kitchen (mahānasa) (46.446-448); rules for serving the food; the materials for the vessels. plates, etc., dependent on the type of food or drink (46.449-459ab);⁷⁶² the dining room (46.459cd-460ab); the order in which particular foods should be consumed (46.460cd-464); rules for taking a meal (46.465-466ab); the beneficial effects of observing these rules (46,466cd-468ab); the times for taking a meal, dependent on the season (46.468cd-47lab); the bad effects of neglecting these rules (46.47lcd-476ab); foods to be discarded (46.476cd-478ab); rules for enjoying tasteful food (46.478cd-482ab); rules to be observed after a meal (46.482cd-490); special rules regarding particular foods and drinks (46.491-497ab); the causes of disorders of the digestive fire (vahnivyāpad) (46.497cd-498);⁷⁶³ digestive disorders (ajīrna) are of three types: āma, vidagdha and vistabdha, caused by kapha, pitta and vāta respectively; some distinguish a fourth type, due to a remnant of the rasa (rasasesa) (46.499);⁷⁶⁴ other causes of improper digestion (46.500-501);⁷⁶⁵ the symptoms of the four types of aiīrna (46.502-503); ⁷⁶⁶ the upadravas (complications) of aiīrna (46.504);⁷⁶⁷ the treatment of ajīrna (46.505-507); the harmfulness of samaśana,⁷⁶⁸ visamāśana⁷⁶⁹ and adhyaśana ⁷⁷⁰ (46.508–509); the treatment of the vidagdha type of ajīrna (46.510); the treatment of vidāha occurring immediately after the ingestion of a meal (46.511); the treatment of the rasasesa type of ajīrna (46.512); a warning regarding the āma type (46.513); the characteristic actions of a first series of ten gunas: śīta (cold), usna (hot), snigdha (oleaginous), rūksa (dry), picchila (mucilaginous), viśada (clear), tīksna (sharp), mrdu (soft), guru (heavy), and laghu (light) (46.514-519); the characteristic actions of a second series of ten gunas: drava (liquid), sāndra (viscid), ślaksna (smooth), karkaśa (rough), sugandha (fragrant), durgandha (bad-smelling), sara (flowing), manda (sluggish), vyavāyin (diffusive), vikāsin (relaxating), āśukārin 1 Sütrasthāna

233

(acting quickly), and sūkṣma (subtle) (46.520–525ab); ⁷⁷¹ the physiology of digestion (46.525cd–528); the impurities (mala) derived successively from the first six of the seven bodily elements (dhātu); kapha (phlegm) derives from rasa, pitta (bile) from rakta, the products excreted from the bodily orifices (khamala) from māṃsa, sveda (sweat) from medas, nails and hairs from asthi, the excretory product of the eyes (netraviṣ) and the sebum (sneha) of the skin from majjan (46.529); ⁷⁷² a meal at night is permissible when ajīrna is suspected, but not a meal next morning (46.530–531).

Chapter 2 Nidānasthāna

Chapter one is devoted to vāta diseases (vātavyādhi). 1

The subjects dealt with are: Suśruta's questioning of Dhanvantari on the seats and actions of vāta in a normal and abnormal state and the diseases caused by it (1.3-4); the nature of vata, called Bhagavant Svayambhū (1.5-7ab); the qualities, actions and seats of vāta (1.7cd-9ab);³ the functions of vāta when in a normal state (1.9cd-10); the five types of vata (1.11-12); the seats and actions of and the disorders caused by prāna, udāna, samāna, vyāna and apāna (1.13-21ab); disorders caused by excited vāta when staying in the āmāśaya (1.22cd-23ab),⁵ pakvāśaya (1.23cd-24ab),⁶ ears (and other sense organs) (1.24cd), ⁷ skin (1.25), ⁸ blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, sirās, snāyus, junctures (sandhi), bones, bone marrow, and semen (1.26-29):9 disorders caused by a generalized excitation of vata (1.30-31ab); disorders caused by an association of vata with pitta, kapha, or blood (1.3 lcd-34ab); 10 disorders caused when prāna, udāna, samāna, apāna, or vyāna are covered (āvrta) by pitta or kapha (1.34cd-39), 11 the aetiology and pathogenesis of vatarakta, 12 and the occurrence of related disorders caused by the corruption of blood (rakta) by pitta and kapha (1.40-44); ¹³ the symptoms of corruption of blood by vāta, pitta, kapha, or all three dosas together (1.45-46); ¹⁴ the prodromes of vatarakta (1.47); ¹⁵ its way of spreading over the body (1.48); prognostic features of vātarakta (1.49-50ab); ¹⁶ descriptions of āksepaka (1.50cd-51), ¹⁷ apatānaka ¹⁸ and dan**d**āpatānaka ¹⁹ (1.52-53ab), hanugraha (1.53cd), ²⁰ dhanuhstambha²¹ and its two varieties: ābhyantarāyāma²² and bāhyāyāma²³ (1.54-57ab); prognostic features of dhanuhstambha (1.57cd); the causes of āksepaka (1.58); incurable types of apatānaka (1.59); the pathogenesis and symptoms of paksāghāta (1.60-62);²⁴ degrees of curability, etc., of paksāghāta (1.63);²⁵ the pathogenesis and symptomatology of apatantraka (1.64-66); ²⁶ the aetiology of manyāstambha (1.67);²⁷ the aetiology, pathogenesis, symptoms, prodromes and prognosis of ardita (1.68-73);²⁸ the pathogenesis and symptoms of grdhrasī (1.74),²⁹ viśvācī (1.75),³⁰ krostukasiras (1.76),³¹ khañjatva³² and pangutva,³³ kalāyakhañjatva (1.78),³⁴ vātakantaka (1.79),³⁵ pādadāha (1.80),³⁶ pādaharṣa (1.81),³⁷ avabāhuka (1.82),³⁸ bādhirya (1.83),³⁹ karņaśūla (1.84),⁴⁰ mūkatva,⁴¹ miņminatva⁴² and gadgadatva⁴³ (1.85), tūnī (1.86), 44 pratitūnī (1.87), 45 ādhmāna, 46 (1.88) pratyādhmāna (1.89), 47 vātāsthīlā (1.90),⁴⁸ and pratvasthīlā (1.91),⁴⁹

Chapter two is devoted to haemorrhoids (arśāmsi).50

The subjects dealt with are: the six types of haemorrhoids: due to vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, concerted action of the dosas, and those which are congenital (sahaja)

(2.3);⁵¹ their aetiology and pathogenesis (2.4); the anatomical position of the anal region (guda); the three folds (vali) found in it, called pravāhaṇī, visarjanī and saṃwaraṇī; their position, shape and colour;⁵² the position of the anal lip (gudauṣṭha) and the distance of the first fold from the anal lip (2.5-7);⁵³ the general prodromes,⁵⁴ which, when the haemorrhoids have arisen, develop into symptoms (2.8-9); the characteristics and symptoms of haemorrhoids caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, and concerted action of the doṣas (2.10-14);⁵⁵ the characteristics and symptoms of congenital haemorrhoids (2.15);⁵⁶ features determining the prognosis (2.16);⁵⁷ fleshy growths resembling haemorrhoids occurring in other regions of the body:⁵⁸ the penis,⁵⁹ female genitals,⁶⁰ umbilical region,⁶¹ ears, eyes, nose, and mouth⁶² (2.17); warts (carmakīla) (2.18);⁶³ features of warts associated with the doṣas and blood (2.19-20);⁶⁴ the six types of haemorrhoids caused by two doṣas (2.22);⁶⁵ the prognosis of haemorrhoids dependent on the doṣas involved (2.23-24);⁶⁶ a serious type of haemorrhoids (2.25-26).

Chapter three is devoted to urinary calculi (aśmarī).

Its subjects are: the four types of aśmarī, caused by kapha, vāta, pitta, and semen (śukra) respectively (3.3);⁶⁷ the aetiology and pathogenesis (3.4); the prodromes (3.5–6); the symptoms (3.7);⁶⁸ the aetiology, pathogenesis, symptomatology, form, colour, consistence, etc., of calculi caused by kapha,⁶⁹ pitta,⁷⁰ and vāta⁷¹ (3.8–10); the occurrence of these three types of calculi in children;⁷² calculi due to semen occur in adults (3.11); the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of calculi due to semen (śukrāśmarī) (3.12); changes occurring in calculi may give rise to gravel (śarkarā) and related substances, resembling sand (sikatā) or ashes (bhasman); the way these substances are produced and the symptoms they bring about (3.13–16ab);⁷³ complications of gravel (3.16cd–17); the anatomy of the urinary bladder (basti) (3.18–20ab); its physiology (3. 20cd–24ab); the pathogenesis of calculi (3.24cd–27ab); disorders caused by abnormal actions of vāta on the bladder: the various types of mūtrāghāta, prameha, śukradoṣa and mūtradosa (3.17cd–28).

Chapter four is devoted to anorectal fistulas (bhagandara). 74

Its subjects are: the five types of bhagandara: śataponaka, ⁷⁵ uṣṭragrīva, parisrāvin, śambūkāvarta, and unmārgin, caused, in the mentioned order, by vāta, pitta, kapha, concerted action of the three doṣas, and exogenous factors (āgantunimitta), the etymology of bhagandara; ⁷⁶ the disorder is called piḍakā when there is no opening (abhinna) and bhagandara (sensu stricto) when one or more openings are present (bhinna) (4.3); the prodromes (4.4); the aetiology of bhagandara; ⁷⁷ the pathogenesis and symptomatology of each of the five types (4.5–9); ⁷⁸ the difference between a common piḍakā (boil) in the region of the anus and the pi̞dakā (abscess) that may develop into a fistula (4.10); the characteristics of the latter type of pi̞dakā (4.11); the prodromes of bhagandara sensu stricto (4.12); the degrees of curability of bhagandara (4.13).

Chapter five is devoted to kustha. 79

The subjects are: the aetiology and pathogenesis of kustha (5.3),80 the prodromes

(5.4); 81 the eighteen types of kustha, divided into seven major (mahākustha) and eleven minor ones (ksudrakustha); 82 the seven mahākusthas are: aruna, udumbara, rsyajihva, kapāla, kākanaka, pundarīka, and dadru; the eleven ksudrakusthas are: sthūlāruska, mahākustha, ekakustha, carmadala, visarpa, parisarpa, sidhma, vicarcikā, kitibha, pāmā, and rakasā (5.5); the association of these kusthas with the dosas and with parasites (krimi); the order of the degree of difficulty to manage (kriyāgurutva) them; the order of their ability to invade the dhātus (dhātvanupraveśa), and of their curability, respectively incurability (5.6-7); the features of each of the mahākusthas, arranged according to the dosa mainly involved: vāta is the main dosa in the aruna type; 83 pitta predominates in (a)udumbara, 84 rsyajihva, 85 kapālakustha 86 and kākanaka, 87 kapha is predominant in p(a) undarīka 88 and dadru 89 (5.8); the characteristic features of the kṣudrakuṣṭhas: sthūlārus, 90 mahākuṣṭha 91 (5.9), ekakuṣṭha, 92 carmadala⁹³ (5.10), visarpa⁹⁴ (5.11), parisarpa,⁹⁵ sidhma⁹⁶ (5.12), vicarcikā⁹⁷ (5.13), kitibha, 98 pāmā 99 (5.14), kacchū, 100 and rakasā 101 (5.15); arus (= sthūlārus), sidhma, rakasā, mahākustha and ekakustha arise from kapha, parisarpa arises from vāta, the remaining ones arise from pitta (5.16); 102 kilāsa is related to kustha and of three types: caused by vata, pitta and kapha; it differs from kustha in being restricted to the skin and having no discharge (aparisrāvin); the characteristic signs of the three types are described, followed by incurable forms (5.17); 103 symptoms of kustha due to vāta, pitta and kapha (5.18); 104 the incurability of paundarīka and kākana. (5.19): 105 kustha, which makes its appearance in the skin first, invades successively the other dhātus if left untreated (5.20-21); the features of kustha when located in the skin, blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, bones, marrow, and semen (5.22-27); 106 the child of parents whose female procreational fluid (sonita) and semen are corrupted by the kusthadosa should be regarded as affected by the disease (kusthita) (5.28); kustha located in the skin, blood and muscular tissue is curable; it is palliable when located in the fatty tissue, but incurable when located in the remaining dhātus (5.29); kustha as a pāparoga due to sinful acts (5.30);¹⁰⁷ when a person suffering from kustha dies, the disease will become manifest again in his or her next life (5.31); a proper diet and behaviour, suitable medicines, and religious austerities (tapas) may overcome the disease and lead to a good life (5.32-33); kustha, jvara (fever), śosa (wasting diseases), netrābhisyanda 108 and epidemic diseases (aupasargikaroga) 109 spread among human beings due to frequent contact in general (abhyāsa) and bodily contact (gātrasamsparśa), by means of breath (niśvāsa), due to sharing the same food, sharing the same bed, and using the same seats, by means of clothing, garlands, and cosmetics (anulepana) (5.34).

Chapter six is devoted to prameha (urinary disorders).

Its subjects are: the general aetiology (6.3) ¹¹⁰ and pathogenesis (6.4); ¹¹¹ the general prodromes (6.5); ¹¹² features present in all types of prameha are turbidity (āvilatva) of the urine and polyuria (prabhūtamūtratva) (6.6); all the pramehas, as well as the piḍakās (associated with them), arise from all the doṣas together (6.7); ¹¹³ kapha ¹¹⁴ gives rise to udakameha, ikṣuvālikāmeha, surāmeha, ¹¹⁵ sikatāmeha, śanairmeha, lavaṇameha, ¹¹⁶

pistameha, ¹¹⁷ sāndrameha, śukrameha, and phenameha; ¹¹⁸ these ten pramehas are curable, because the dosa involved and the corrupted bodily elements (dūsya) can be corrected by the same remedial measures; 119 pitta gives rise to nīlameha, haridrāmeha, amlameha, 120 ksārameha, mañjisthāmeha, and śonitameha; 121 these six pramehas are palliable, because the dosa involved and the corrupted bodily elements are dissimilar with regard to corrective measures; 122 vāta gives rise to sarpirmeha, 123 vasāmeha, 124 ksaudrameha, 125 and hastimeha; these four pramehas are incurable on account of their very serious nature (mahātyayikatva) 126 (6.8); the kapha types are caused by kapha, in combination with vata, pitta and fatty tissue (medas), the pitta types by pitta, in combination with vata, kapha, blood and fatty tissue, the vata types by vata, in combination with kapha, pitta, vasā, bone marrow and fatty tissue (6.9); the characteristics of each of the ten types of prameha caused by kapha (6.10), 127 each of the six types caused by pitta (6.11), ¹²⁸ and each of the four types caused by vata (6.12); ¹²⁹ the complications of the pramehas brought about by each of the three dosas (6.13); 130 the ten types of pidakā arising from the three dosas in prameha patients with a large amount of fatty tissues (vasā and medas): śarāvikā, sarsapikā, kacchapikā, jālinī, vinatā, putrinī, masūrikā, alajī, vidārikā, and vidradhikā (6.14); 131 the characteristics of each of these types (6.15–19); ¹³² the aetiological factors of the pidakās are the same as those of prameha (6.20ab); ¹³³ features leading to incurability of the pidakās (6.20c-f); ¹³⁴ the incurability of pidakās caused by vāta which has affected medas, majjan and vasā (6.21); the signs indicating that a patient should be diagnosed as suffering from prameha (6.22-23); a patient with pidakās and severe complications suffers from madhumeha 135 and is incurable: the characteristics of the behaviour of such a patient are described (6.24-25): the various types of prameha are compared to mixed colours 136 arising from combinations of the five colours (6.26); ¹³⁷ all types of prameha, if not properly treated, develop into madhumeha, thus becoming incurable (6.27).

Chapter seven is devoted to udara (abdominal swelling). 138

Its subjects are: the eight types of udara: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas, and those called plīhodara, baddhaguda, āgantuka, and dakodara (7.4); ¹³⁹ the aetiology and pathogenesis of udara (7.5–7ab); ¹⁴⁰ the general prodromes (7.7cd–8ab); ¹⁴¹ the symptoms of udara caused by vāta, pitta, kapha (7.8cd–11ab); ¹⁴² the aetiology and symptomatology of udara caused by concerted action of the three doṣas; this type is also called dūṣyudara (7.11cd–14a); ¹⁴³ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of plīhodara (splenomegalia), located on the left side of the abdomen (7.14b–16ab); ¹⁴⁴ when the same features appear on the right side, due to involvement of the liver, the disorder is called yakṛddālyudara (7.16cd); ¹⁴⁵ the aetiology and symptomatology of baddhaguda (intestinal obstruction) (7.17–19a); ¹⁴⁶ the aetiology and symptomatology of parisrāvyudara (intestinal perforation) (7.19b–21a); ¹⁴⁷ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of dakodara (ascites) (7.21b–23); ¹⁴⁸ the general symptoms of jathara (= udara) (7.24); ¹⁴⁹ ultimately, accumulation of water in the abdomen develops in all types of jathara; this makes them unsuitable to treatment (7.25). ¹⁵⁰

Chapter eight is devoted to mū¢hagarbha (foetal malpresentation) and some related obstetrical topics. ¹⁵¹

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology and pathogenesis of mūdhagarbha (8.3); 152 the classification into four types: kīla, pratikhura, bījaka and parigha; when the arms, legs and head of the child point upwards, thus obstructing the opening of the uterus like a peg (kīla), the malposition is called kīla; 153 when the hands, feet and head come out, while the remaining part of the body remains stuck, it is a case of pratikhura; 154 when the head and one limb come out, it is called bījaka; 155 when the foetus covers the opening of the uterus like a bar for closing a door (parigha), it is called parigha; 156 the classification of mudhagarbha into these four types, adopted by some authorities, 157 is not correct, because abnormalities of vata lead to several kinds of obstruction in the birth channel; this makes the number of four insufficient (8.4); actually, mudhagarbha is of eight types: 158 presentation by the two lower extremities or by one lower limb with the other one flexed; 159 the foetus may present itself with both lower limbs flexed over the body, while the buttocks are presented obliquely; 160 presentation by the lateral part of the chest (pārśva), thus obstructing the opening of the uterus; 161 presentation by one arm with the head turned sideways; 162 presentation by both arms and with bent head; presentation by hands, feet and back and with the trunk bent; presentation by one lower limb, while the other points towards the anus (8.5); 163 the last two types of mūdhagarbha cannot be managed; the remaining types should not be accepted for treatment when the woman in child-bed is delirious, suffers from convulsions (āksepaka), a vaginal prolapse (yonibhramsa), yonisamvarana, 164 makkalla, shortness of breath, cough, or giddiness (8.6); ¹⁶⁵ the normal delivery (8.7–8); expulsion of the foetus up to the fourth month is called garbhavicyuti (abortion); 166 when it occurs later, from the fifth or sixth month onwards, it is called garbhapāta (8.9-10); 167 signs indicating the imminent death of the foetus or the mother (8.11); signs pointing to a dead foetus (8.12); 168 mental or exogenous disorders of the expectant mother may kill the child in her womb (8.13); 169 if the woman in child-bed ¹⁷⁰ is dying, but movements are still visible in her abdomen, the physician should open the belly and take out the child (8.14). 171

Chapter nine is devoted to vidradhi (abscesses).

Its subjects are: the pathogenesis and general appearance of vidradhi; its six types: caused by a single doṣa, all the doṣas together, a trauma (kṣata), and blood (9.4–6), ¹⁷² the characteristics of vidradhi caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, and a combination of the doṣas (9.7–11ab); the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptoms of vidradhi caused by a trauma ¹⁷³ (9.11cd–13ab); the characteristics of vidradhi caused by blood (9. 13cd–14ab); vidradhi caused by all the doṣas is incurable (9.14cd); ¹⁷⁴ the aetiology and pathogenesis of internal (ābhyantara) vidradhi, which resembles a gulma and has the shape of a termite hill (valmīka) (9.15–17ab); the sites of internal vidradhis; their features, which are like those of the external type; the signs of ripe and unripe vidradhis (9.17cd–19ab); ¹⁷⁵ special features dependent on the site involved: anorectal region (guda), bladder (basti), umbilical region (nābhi), lateral parts of the abdomen (kuksi), groins (vankṣana), kidneys (vṛkka), spleen (plīhan), cardiac region (hrd), liver

(yalut), kloman (9.19cd-22); ¹⁷⁶ degrees of amenability to treatment (9.23-25); ¹⁷⁷ the special type of vidradhi, caused by blood, and called makkalla; ¹⁷⁸ this disorder occurs in women after a miscarriage (apaprajātā) ¹⁷⁹ and after a normal delivery when the blood has not come out (9.26-27); suppuration will set in when makkalla does not subside within seven days (9.28ab); the differences between gulma and vidradhi (9.28cd-33); incurable types of vidradhi (9.34ab); ¹⁸⁰ inflammatory and suppurating processes in the bone marrow (majjaparīpāka) (9.34cd-38). ¹⁸¹

Chapter ten is devoted to visarpa (erysipelas or cellulitis), nāḍī (a sinus), and stanaroga (diseases of the breasts).

The subjects dealt with are: the pathogenesis and general features of visarpa; the explanation of its name (10.3); ¹⁸² the characteristics of visarpa due to vāta (10.4), ¹⁸³ pitta (10.5), ¹⁸⁴ kapha (10.6ab), ¹⁸⁵ and all the dosas collectively (10.6cd); ¹⁸⁶ the features of visarpa in someone with a recent sore due to a trauma (ksatavrana) (10.7); 187 degrees of amenability to treatment (10.8); 188 circumstances leading to the development of a nadi or gati (10.9-10ab); this disorder is caused by one of the dosas separately, a combination of two dosas, concerted action of the three dosas, or the presence of a foreign body (salva) (10.10cd); the characteristics of a nadī due to vata, pitta, kapha (10.11-12ab), a combination of two dosas (10.12cd), concerted action (10.13), and a foreign body (10.14); stanaroga has the same group of causes as gatiand is divided into the same number of types (10.15); the openings (dvāra) of the ducts (dhamanī) in the breasts of virgins are closed, which explains that stanarogas do not occur in them; they are open in pregnant women and those who have given birth, which makes them liable to these disorders (10.16–17); the physiology of milk secretion, which is comparable to the production of semen (sukra) in the male (10.18-23ab); 189 the characteristics of breastmilk corrupted by vāta, pitta, kapha, and all the dosas together (10.23cd-24); 190 the characteristics of normal breastmilk (10.25); ¹⁹¹ stanaroga is brought about by dosas which reach the breasts of women, lactating or not lactating, and corrupt the blood and the tissues (māmsa) present there; the disorder is of the same five types and produces the same symptoms as an external abscess (bahyavidradhi), with this difference that a type caused by blood does not occur (10.26–27). 192

Chapter eleven is devoted to the disorders called granthi, apacī, arbuda and galagaṇḍa. The subjects dealt with are: the pathogenesis and general appearance of granthi (11.3); ¹⁹³ the characteristics of granthi due to vāta, pitta, and kapha (11.4–6); ¹⁹⁴ the characteristics of granthi brought about by fatty tissue (medas) (11.7); ¹⁹⁵ the aetiology, pathogenesis and appearance of granthi arising from the sirās; the degrees of curability of this disorder (11.8–9); the origin, appearance, symptoms, course, duration, and amenability to treatment of apacī (11.10–12); ¹⁹⁶ the origin, appearance and evolution of arbuda; ¹⁹⁷ its six types: due to vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, muscular tissue, and fatty tissue; its characteristics are like those of granthi (11.13–15ab); ¹⁹⁸ the pathogenesis, appearance, course, etc., of arbuda due to blood (raktārbuda) (11.15cd–17ab) and to muscular tissue (māṃsārbuda) (11.17cd–19); an arbuda developing when another one is already present is called adhyarbuda; two arbudas growing simultaneously or

successively are called dvirarbuda; these conditions are incurable (11.20); suppuration (pāka) does not occur in arbudas, due to their very nature (nisarga): kapha predominates in them, they abound in fatty tissue (medas), and their doṣas are immobile (sthira) and knotted together (grathana) (11.21); the pathogenesis of galagaṇḍa (11.22); ¹⁹⁹ characteristics of galagaṇḍa due to vāta, kapha, and fatty tissue (medas) (11.23–27); ²⁰⁰ signs of incurability in galagaṇḍa (11.28); ²⁰¹ the definition of galagaṇḍa: it is a large or small swelling (śvayathu), resembling a testicle (muṣka), attached to and hanging from the throat (gala) (11.29).

Chapter twelve is devoted to vrddhi (swellings of the scrotum), upadaṃśa (swellings and sores of the penis), and ślīpada (filariasis).

The subjects dealt with are: the seven types of vrddhi: due to vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, fatty tissue (medas), urine, and intestine (antra); 202 the types brought about by urine and intestine arise from vata and differ only in the ground of their production (utpattihetu) (12.3);²⁰³ when any one of the dosas gets excited in the lower part (of the trunk) and reaches the ducts (dhamanī) of the scrotum, the resulting enlargement is called vrddhi (12.4); ²⁰⁴ the prodromes (12.5); the characteristics of vrddhi caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, fatty tissue, and blood;²⁰⁵ the aetiology and characteristics of the type caused by urine; ²⁰⁶ the aetiology, pathogenesis and characteristics of the type brought about by a part of the intestines ²⁰⁷ (12.6); the aetiology of upadamsa, a disorder consisting of swelling (śvayathu) of the penis, with or without a sore (ksata) (12.7); ²⁰⁸ the five types of upadamsa: caused by a single dosa, concerted action of the dosas, and blood (12.8); ²⁰⁹ the characteristics of these five types (12.9); ²¹⁰ the pathogenesis of ślīpada, which consists of a swelling of the legs; 211 it is caused by vāta, pitta or kapha (12.10); the characteristics of the three types (12.11); ²¹² features making slipada unsuitable to treatment (12.12); ²¹³ the predominance of kapha in ślīpada (12.13); ²¹⁴ ślīpada is prevalent in regions with much stagnant water and a cool climate (12.14); ślīpada occurs not only in the legs but also in the hands; some say that it may affect the ears, eyes, nose and lips (12.15). 215

Chapter thirteen is devoted to the kṣudrarogas, ²¹⁶ a group of forty-four diseases, listed at the beginning of the chapter (13.3), ²¹⁷ and described afterwards.

The ksudrarogas are: ajagallikā (13.4), ²¹⁸ yavaprakhyā (13.5), ²¹⁹ andhālajī (13.6), ²²⁰ vivṛtā (13.7), ²²¹ kacchapikā (13.8), ²²² valımīka (13.9–10), ²²³ indravṛddhā (13.11), ²²⁴ gardabhikā (13.12ab), ²²⁵ panasikā (13.12cd), ²²⁶ pāṣāṇagardabha (13.13), ²²⁷ jālagardabha (13.14), ²²⁸ irivellikā (13.15), ²²⁹ kakṣā (13.16), ²³⁰ gandhanāmā (13.17), ²³¹ visphoṭaka (13.18), ²³² agnirohiṇī (13.19–20), ²³³ cippa (13.21–22ab), ²³⁴ kunakha or kulīna (13.22cd–23ab), ²³⁵ anuṣayī (13.23cd–24ab), ²³⁶ vidārikā (13.24cd–25ab), ²³⁷ śarkarārbuda (13.25cd–28ab), ²³⁸ pāmā, vicarcī and rakasā (13.28cd), ²³⁹ pādadārī (13.29), ²⁴⁰ kadara (13.30–31), ²⁴¹ alasa (13.32), ²⁴² indralupṭa, also called khālitya and rujyā (13.33–34), ²⁴³ dāruṇaka (13.35), ²⁴⁴ aruṇṣikā (13.36), ²⁴⁵ palita (13.37), ²⁴⁶ masūrikā (13.38), ²⁴⁷ mukhadūṣikā (13.39), ²⁴⁸ padninīkaṇṭaka (13.40), ²⁴⁹ jatumaṇi (13.41), ²⁵⁰ maṣaka (13.42), ²⁵¹ tilakālaka (13.43), ²⁵² nyaccha (13.44), ²⁵³ carmakīla (13.45ab), ²⁵⁴ vyaṅga (13.45cd–46), ²⁵⁵ nīlikā (13.47ab), ²⁵⁶ parivartikā

(13.47cd-50ab), ²⁵⁷ avapāṭikā (13.50cd-52ab), ²⁵⁸ niruddhaprakāśa (13.52cd-54), ²⁵⁹ saṃniruddhaguda (13.55-56), ²⁶⁰ ahipūtana (13.57-58), ²⁶¹ vṛṣaṇakacchū (13.59-60), ²⁶² and gudabhramśa (13.61). ²⁶³

Chapter fourteen is devoted to śūkadoṣa, ²⁶⁴ a group of diseases occurring in men with improper sexual practices ²⁶⁵ who want to increase the size of their penis.

Eighteen types of śūkadoṣa are distinguished and described: ²⁶⁶ sarṣapikā, ²⁶⁷ aṣthīlikā, ²⁶⁸ grathita, ²⁶⁹ kumbhīkā, ²⁷⁰ alajī, ²⁷¹ mṛdita, ²⁷² saɪnmūdhapidakā, ²⁷³ avamantha, ²⁷⁴ puṣkarikā, ²⁷⁵ sparśahāni, ²⁷⁶ uttamā, ²⁷⁶ śataponaka, ²⁷⁸ tvakpāka, ²⁷⁹ śonitārbuda, māṃsapāka, ²⁸⁰ vidradhi, ²⁸¹ and tilakālaka ²⁸² (14.3–17). Incurable are māṃsārbuda, māṃsapāka, vidradhi and tilakālaka (14.18).

Chapter fifteen is devoted to bhagna (fractures and dislocations). 283

Its subjects are: the various traumas (abhighāta) causing bhagna (15.3); the two groups of bhanga (= bhagna): sandhimukta (dislocation of joints) ²⁸⁴ and kāṇḍabhagna (fractures); ²⁸⁵ sandhimukta is of six, kāṇḍabhagna of twelve types (15.4); the six types of dislocation: utpiṣṭa, ²⁸⁶ viśliṣṭa, ²⁸⁷ vivartita, ²⁸⁸ avakṣipṭa, ²⁸⁹ atikṣipṭa, ²⁹⁰ and tiryakkṣipṭa ²⁹¹ (15.5); the general features of dislocations (15.6); ²⁹² the characteristics of the six types (15.7); ²⁹³ the twelve types of fracture: karkaṭaka, ²⁹⁴ aśvakarṇa, ²⁹⁵ cūrṇita, ²⁹⁶ piccita, ²⁹⁷ asthicchallita, ²⁹⁸ kāṇḍabhagna, ²⁹⁹ majjānugata, ³⁰⁰ atipātita, ³⁰¹ vakra, ³⁰² chinna, ³⁰³ pāṭita, ³⁰⁴ and sphuṭita ³⁰⁵ (15.8); ³⁰⁶ the general features of fractures (15.9); ³⁰⁷ the characteristics of the twelve types (15.10); features of dislocations and fractures and of patients which lead to difficulties in treatment or incurability (15.11–13); cases which should not be accepted for treatment (15.14–15ab); the influence of the patient's age on the healing process (15.15cd–16ab); the characteristics of fractures in particular types of bones (15.16–17). ³⁰⁸

Chapter sixteen is devoted to diseases of the mouth, oral cavity and throat (mukharoga), 309

The subjects dealt with are: the total number of these diseases, namely sixty-five; ³¹⁰ their seven sites: lips (oṣṭha), roots of the teeth and the gums (dantamūla), ³¹¹ teeth (danta), tongue (jihvā), palate (tālu), throat (gala), and the whole of these structures together; there are eight diseases of the lips, fifteen of the roots of the teeth and the gums, eight of the teeth, five of the tongue, nine of the palate, seventeen of the throat, and three affecting the whole of these sites (16.3); diseases of the lips are caused by vāta, ³¹² pitta, ³¹³ kapha, ³¹⁴ concerted action of the three doṣas, ³¹⁵ blood, ³¹⁶ muscular tissue, ³¹⁷ fatty tissue, ³¹⁸ and traumata (abhighāta) (16.4); the characteristics of these diseases (16.5–12); ³¹⁹ the diseases of the roots of the teeth and the gums ³²⁰ are: śītāda, ³²¹ dantapuppuṭaka, ³²² dantaveṣṭa(ka), ³²³ śauṣira, ³²⁴ mahāśauṣira, ³²⁵ paridara, ³²⁶ upakuśa, ³²⁷ (danta)vaidarbha, ³²⁸ vardhana, ³²⁹ adhimāṃsa, ³³⁰ and the five types of nādī ³³¹ (16.13); the characteristics of these diseases (16.14–26); ³³² the diseases of the teeth: ³³³ dālana, ³³⁴ kṛmidantaka, ³³⁵ dantaharṣa, ³³⁶ bhañ janaka, ³³⁷ dantaśarkarā, ³³⁸ kapālikā, ³³⁹ syāvadantaka, ³⁴⁰ and hanumokṣa ³⁴¹ (16.27); the characteristics of these diseases (16.28–35); ³⁴² the diseases of the tongue: three types of

2 Suśrutasamhitā

242

kanṭaka, ³⁴³ caused by vāta, pitta and kapha respectively, alāsa, ³⁴⁴ and upajihvikā ³⁴⁵ (16.36); the characteristics of these diseases (16.37–39); ³⁴⁶ the diseases of the palate: kanṭhaśuṇḍī or galaśuṇḍikā, ³⁴⁷ tuṇḍikerī, ³⁴⁸ adhruṣa, ³⁴⁹ kacchapa, ³⁵⁰ arbuda, ³⁵¹ māṃsasaṇghāta, ³⁵² tālupuppuṭa, ³⁵³ tāluśoṣa, ³⁵⁴ and tālupāka (16.40); ³⁵⁵ the characteristics of these diseases (16.41–45); ³⁵⁶ the diseases of the throat: the five types of rohiṇī, ³⁵⁷ kaṇṭhaśālūka, ³⁵⁸ adhijihva, ³⁵⁹ valaya, ³⁶⁰ balāsa, ³⁶¹ ekavṛnda, ³⁶² vṛnda, ³⁶³ śataghnī, ³⁶⁴ galaydradhi, ³⁶⁶ galaugha, ³⁶⁷ svaraghna, ³⁶⁸ māṃsatāna, ³⁶⁹ and vidārī ³⁷⁰ (16.46); the characteristics of these diseases (16.47–63); ³⁷¹ the disease affecting all the mentioned structures is called sarvasara; ³⁷² it is of four varieties, caused by vāta, pitta, kapha and blood (16.64); the characteristics of the first three of these varieties (16.65–66ab), ³⁷³ the fourth type, caused by blood, is not a distinct entity, but a subtype of that caused by pitta; some call it mukhapāka (16.66cd). ³⁷⁴

Chapter 3 Śārīrasthāna

Chapter one, called sarvabhūtacintāśārīra, is devoted to an exposition of the Sāṃkhya philosophy and its relevance to medicine. ¹

The subjects dealt with are: the avyakta and its characteristics (laksana); sattva, rajas and tamas; the eight forms (rūpa) of avyakta; 2 the avyakta is the seat (adhisthāna) of many ksetra jñas (1.3); mahat originates from the avyakta, ahamkāra from mahat; ahamkāra is of three kinds: vaikārika, taijasa and bhūtādi; the vaikārika ahamkāra, with the cooperation of the taijasa ahamkāra, is the origin of the eleven indrivas: the five buddhīndrivas, the five karmendrivas, and manas; the five tanmātras arise from the bhūtādi ahamkāra, with the cooperation of the taijasa ahamkāra; the tanmātras and their specific qualities (visesa); the development of the (mahā)bhūtas from the tanmātras; twenty-four tattvas arise in this way (1.4); 3 the objects of the five senses (buddhīndriva) and the actions (viharana) of the karmendriyas (1.5); the eight principles (tattva) collectively called prakrti consist of avyakta, mahat, ahamkāra and the five tanmātras; the remaining sixteen are vikāras (derivatives) (1.6); the deities connected with buddhi, ahamkāra, manas, the buddhīndriyas and the karmendriyas (1.7);⁴ these twenty-four tattvas are not endowed with consciousness (they are acetana), but the twenty-fifth, the purusa, is, when combined with prakrti and the vikāras, the source of this principle (1.8); the differences between prakrti and purusa (1.9); all the twenty-four tattvas have sattva, rajas and tamas as their constituents; some are of the opinion that this also applies to the purusas (1.10); in medical science, however, the far-sighted (prthudarśinali) regard svabhāva (inherent nature), kāla (time), yadrcchā (chance), niyati (fate) and parināma (transformation) as prakṛti (1.11); 5 the mahābhūtas (1.12); their importance in medicine (1.13); all the substances (dravva) derive from the bhūtādi; the sense organs and their objects are regarded, in the medical science, as derived from the five mahābhūtas (1.14); the specific relationships between the sense organs and their objects (1.15); the non-oinnipresent (asarvagata) karmapurusa 6 as the object of the medical science; the ksetraiña, its eternal (nitya) nature, etc., can be grasped only by means of inference (1.16); the qualities of the purusa (1.17); the characteristics of sattvika, rājasa and tāmasa persons (1.18);7 the derivatives of the five mahābhūtas in the human body (1.19); 8 sattva predominates in ākāśa, rajas in vāyu (wind, air), sattva and rajas in agni (fire), sattva and tamas in āpalı (water), tamas in prthivī (earth) (1.20); the anyo'nyānupraveśa of the mahābhūtas; a substance is called after the mahābhūta predominantly present in it (1.21).

Chapter two, called śukraśonitaśuddhiśārīra, is devoted to the purity (śuddhi) of the male and female procreational fluids (śukra and śonita) and a number of related issues (conception, the development of the foetus, etc.).

The subjects dealt with are: the enumeration of the characteristics of the kinds of semen (retas) unsuitable for generating offspring (2.3); the description of these conditions: 9 semen corrupted by vata, pitta or kapha possesses the colour of these dosas and leads to painful sensations (vedanā) characteristic of them; when corrupted by blood, the semen smells like a decomposing corpse (kunapagandhin) and is profuse in quantity; semen corrupted by kapha and vāta shows clots (granthibhūta); corrupted by pitta and kapha, it resembles foul-smelling pus (pūtipūyanibha); corrupted by pitta and vāta, it is small in quantity (ksīna) and shows the features described; 10 semen corrupted by concerted action of the dosas smells like urine or faeces; curable with difficulty are the disorders in which the semen smells like a decomposing corpse, is clotted, smells like pus, and is small in quantity; the patients whose semen smells like urine or faeces cannot be cured at all (2.4); the disorders of the artava¹¹ are of the same eight types as those of the semen and possess the same characteristics; incurable are the types in which the artava (menstrual discharge) smells like a decomposing corpse, is clotted, resembles pus, is small in quantity, and smells like urine or faeces; the remaining types are curable (2.5); 12 the treatment of the disorders of the semen (śukradosa) (2.6-11ab); 13 the characteristics of normal semen (2.11cd-12ab); 14 the treatment of the disorders of the artava (2.12cd-16); the characteristics of normal ārtava (2.17); 15 the disorder called asrgdara, characterized by an excessive discharge of menstrual blood (menorrhagia) or bleeding from the uterine tract at irregular times (metrorrhagia) (2.18); the symptoms of asrgdara (2.19-20ab); 16 asrgdara should be treated on the same lines as raktapitta (2.20cd-21ab); 17 amenorrhoea and its treatment (2.21cd-22); the already described oligomenorrhoea 18 should be treated like amenorrhoea (2.23); things to be avoided by a menstruating woman; the specific bad effects that infringements on these rules may have on a child conceived during the fertile period; rules regarding sleeping habits and diet during the first three days of the menstrual cycle; coitus should be avoided during these three days, but is permitted on the fourth day (2.25); ¹⁹ a woman should see her husband after the bath at the end of her impure period, because the child that might be conceived resembles the person first seen (2.26); rites and various prescriptions regarding behaviour and diet leading to the conception of a male (2.27-20) or female child (2.30); ²⁰ intercourse on the first day of menstruation reduces a man's span of life; a child conceived on that day would die during delivery; a child conceived on the second day would die during the mother's stay in the lying-in room; conceived on the third day, it would have incompletely developed body parts and a short life; conceived on the fourth day, its body will be completely developed and it will have a long life; semen which enters the womb when the blood is still flowing out will not be fruitful; for that reason no intercourse should take place during the first three nights (2.31); the ritual to ensure that a child conceived will be male (2.32);²¹ the four requirements for conception, comparable to season, soil, water and seed with regard to the production of crops (2.33-34); the preponderance of one or more of the mahābhūtas determines the complexion of the child; fire (teiodhātu) is the source of colours; when at the time of conception this (fiery principle) is mainly mixed with water the child will be fair (gaura), when mainly mixed with earth it will be dark (kṛṣṇa), when mainly mixed with earth and ākāśa it will be krsnaśyāma, when mainly mixed with water and ākāśa it will be gauraśyāma; 22 others are of the opinion that the colour of the child's skin depends on the colour of the food taken by the mother; particulars with regard to the fiery principle (tejodhātu) determine the colour of the eyes, the presence of blindness, and abnormalities of the eyes²³ (2.35); the procreational substance (artava) of a woman is dislodged during intercourse, like a lump of ghee, melting in contact with the heat of fire (2.36); when the vata lodged within a bija 24 divides it into two halves, twins will be born, 25 who are beings deriving from adharma 26 (2.37); abnormalities of sexual behaviour: 27 due to scantiness of the parental bīja an āsekya may be born, who gets an erection (dhya jocchrāya) after swallowing (another man's) sperm; when the female gemitals are foul-smelling (pūtiyoni), a saugandhika may be born, who is sexually stimulated by the smell of vagina and penis; a man who first accepts to be the passive partner in anal intercourse and then proceeds to anal penetration of a woman is known as kumbhīka; a man who is potent only after looking at the intercourse of another couple is called īrsyaka; when a man, in a female fashion, has intercourse with his wife (during the menstrual period), a sandhaka may be born, who looks and behaves like a woman; when a woman, still menstruating, assumes the male position during intercourse, and a daughter is conceived, she will show male behavioural traits (2.38-43);²⁸ the āsekya, sugandhin, kumbhīka and īrsyaka do have semen, but the sandha is devoid of it (2.44); the semen-transporting vessels (sirā) in these types of persons get engorged by unnatural practices only, thus leading to an erection (2.45); the qualities of a child are determined by the diet, behaviour and acts of the parents at the time of intercourse (2.46); the intercourse of two women, who both discharge their sukra, ²⁹ leads to the conception of a child without bones (2.47); when a woman, after the bath at the end of her impure period, experiences intercourse in a dream, vāta will dislodge the artava and an embryo will be formed; the signs of pregnancy will develop from month to month, but the paternal elements will be entirely absent in this child, which is called kalala (2.48-49); ³⁰ the birth of deformed children, looking like a serpent, scorpion or gourd, should be regarded as the result of bad acts (2.50); when a woman's longings during pregnancy are not respected and vāta becomes excited, the child that will be born may be humpbacked (kubja), have a deformed arm (kuni), be lame (pangu) or dumb (mūka), or have a nasal voice (minmina) (2.51); due to the small amount of impure matter and the negligible activity of vata in its pakvāśaya, the foetus in the womb does not discharge flatus, urine and faeces (2.53); the foetus does not cry because, its mouth being covered by the foetal membranes (jarāyu)31 and its throat being full of kapha, the pathway of vāta is blocked (2.54); the inhalations (nihśvāsa), exhalations (ucchvāsa), movements (samksobha) and sleep of the foetus are intimately connected with the same functions of the mother (2.55); the structure (samnivesa) of bodily beings, the eruption and falling out of the teeth, and the absence of hairs on the palms of the hands and the soles of the feet are due to svabhāva (inherent nature) (2.56); those who were constantly engaged in study of the sastras in their previous lives, become men with a predominance of sattva, who can remember their former existences (jatismara)³² (2.57); the kind of actions performed in a previous life reappears on rebirth; this also applies to virtues practised in an earlier existence (2.58).

Chapter three, called garbhāvakrāntiśārīra, ³³ is devoted to conception, the development of the child within the womb, and some related topics. ³⁴

The subjects are: the saumya character of sukra (semen), the agneya (fiery) character of artava (the female procreational fluid); the reasons for positing that the other mahābhūtas are present in them too, although in small amounts (3.3);³⁵ the description of conception: tejas (the fiery principle), activated by vāta, makes the male discharge his semen during sexual intercourse into the female genitals; semen and ārtava unite and, through (this) conjunction of agni and soma, (the product) reaches the uterus (garbhāśaya); the ksetrajña, endowed with many names, ³⁶ enters, impelled by vāta, and accompanied by the bhūtātman, at the same moment (anyaksam), the same organ and remains settled there, together with sattva, rajas, tamas and all their derivatives (3.4);³⁷ predominance of sukra leads to the formation of a male, predominance of artava to the formation of a female child; if both are present in equal amounts, the child will be a napumsaka (neither male nor female) (3.5); 38 the period suitable to impregnation (rtu) consists of twelve days after (the cessation of) the menses; some are of the opinion that the same rule holds good when the woman has not menstruated visibly (adrstartava) (3.6); the characteristics of a woman in the fertile part of the menstrual cycle (rtumatī) (3.7-8); on expiry of the fertile period (rtu), the uterus (yoni) contracts, in the same way as the flower of a water-lily at the end of the day (3.9); the ārtava, which comes from two vessels (dhamanī), accumulates in the course of a month and is led to the opening of the female genitals (yonimukha) by vāta; its normal colour is slightly dark (krsna) and different from (that of normal blood) ³⁹ (3.10); ⁴⁰ menstruation starts at the age of twelve years and stops at the age of fifty (3.11); intercourse on even days leads to the conception of a male, on odd days to the conception of a female child (3. 12); signs indicating that a woman has recently conceived (3.13):⁴¹ signs indicating pregnancy (3.14-15); 42 things to be avoided by a pregnant woman (3.16); 43 disorders of particular parts of the mother's body, caused by the dosas, manifest themselves in the same parts of the unborn child (3.17); in the first month of pregnancy the embryo becomes what is called a kalala; 44 in the second month, due to the action of the mahābhūtas, it develops into a solid mass, which is globular (pinda), elongated (peśī) or like an arbuda, which are characteristics pointing to the formation of a male, female or napumsaka child; 45 in the third month the arms, legs and head begin to appear, and all the major and minor divisions of the body are already present in a subtle form, 46 in the fourth month the major and minor body parts become visible, and the cetanadhātu (the principle of consciousness) begins to manifest itself because the heart of the foetus has been formed; the heart is the seat of cetana; for this reason the foetus begins to long after the objects of the senses; the mother, now possessing two hearts. is called dauhrdinī from this time onwards; 47 the defects of children, resulting from neglect of the pregnant woman's longings; the importance of their satisfaction (3.18-

21); ⁴⁸ the effects on the child of particular longings (3.22–28); the pregnancy longings are determined by fate (daiva), just like the actions in a former existence determine those during the present life (3.29); in the fifth month the mind (manas) of the foetus awakens more fully, in the sixth month the buddhi; in the seventh month the major and minor body parts go on to develop; in the eighth month the ojas becomes unstable; a child born in this month will not survive, because of the deficiency of its o jas (nirojastva), and also because it belongs to Nirrti, ⁴⁹ to whom propitiatory offerings (bali) of māmsaudana⁵⁰ should be given in this period; ⁵¹ delivery takes place in the ninth, tenth, eleventh or twelfth month; if otherwise, it should be regarded as an abnormality (3.30);⁵² the umbilical cord (garbhanābhinādī) is attached to the rasa-transporting vessel (nādī) of the mother, which carries the vīrya of the āhārarasa⁵³ of the mother to the foetus, which grows thanks to the upasneha (nutrients) this rasa contains; this upasneha, carried by the rasa-transporting vessels (dhamanī), which run through the wholebody, supports the life of the unborn child (3.31);⁵⁴ the opinions of a number of authorities on the question which part of the embryo develops first; this part is the head according to Saunaka, the heart according to Krtavīrya, the umbilical region according to Pārāśarya, hands and feet according to Mārkandeya, the trunk according to Subhūti Gautama; the final verdict came from Dhanvantari who, declaring all these opinions to be false, expounded that all major and minor parts of the body develop simultaneously, although they cannot be distinguished clearly in the early stages (3.32);55 the constituents of the foetus derive from father, mother, rasa, ātman, and sātmya; of paternal origin are all the firm (sthira) parts: hair of the head (keśa), face (śmaśru) and body (loman), bones, nails and teeth, sirās, snāyus and dhamanīs, semen (retas), etc.; derived from the mother are all the soft (mrdu) parts; muscles, blood, fat (medas), bone marrow, heart, umbilical region, liver, spleen, intestines, ano-rectal region, etc.; derived from rasa are: bodily solidity (upacaya), strength (bala), complexion (varna), maintenance (sthiti) and decay (hāni); derived from the ātman are: the senses, spiritual and worldly knowledge (jñāna and vijñāna), span of life (āyus), happiness (sukha), grief (duhkha), etc.; the constituents derived from sattva will be discussed in one of the subsequent chapters; derived from sātmya are: vīrya, health, strength (bala), complexion (varna) and intelligence (medhā) (3.33);⁵⁶ signs indicating that the child carried is male, female, or a napumsaka; the sign indicating that a twin-birth is to be expected (3.34);⁵⁷ the formation of the major and minor body parts is due to svabhāva, but the good or bad features of these parts are due to (the balance of) dharma and adharma (in previous lives) (3.36).

Chapter four, called garbhavyākaraṇa, is devoted to a more detailed exposition on the foetus.

The subjects dealt with are: the prāṇas, which consist of agni, soma, ⁵⁸ vāyu, sattva, rajas, tamas, the five sense organs, and the bhūtātman (4.3); ⁵⁹ the formation of the seven layers of the skin, called avabhāsinī, lohitā, śvetā, tāmrā, vedinī, rohiņī, and māṃsadharā; the thickness of each of these layers; the disorders located in them; ⁶⁰ the measurements given are those found in fleshy parts, not in parts with a thin skin like the forehead, etc. (4.4); ⁶¹ the kalās, which are seven in number; a kalā is the tissue

forming a boundary between dhātu and āśraya (receptacle) (4.5); a dhātu becomes visible on cutting through fleshy parts; the structures called kalā are covered by snāyus, encased in a membrane (jarāyu), and surrounded by phlegm (ślesman) (4.6-7);⁶² descriptions of the seven kalās, called successively māmsadharā,63 raktadharā,64 medodharā, 65 śleşmadharā, 66 purīsadharā, pittadharā, and śukradharā (4.8-20), 67 semen is present throughout the whole body, just as ghee in milk and juice in the sugarcane (4.21); the place where the sukra enters the urethra; it flows out through the urethra (4.22); the process of ejaculation (4.23); pregnant women do not menstruate because the channels (srotas) transporting artava are obstructed by the foetus; part of the artava is the material out of which the placenta (apara) is formed, the remaining part makes the breasts swell (4.24); liver (yakrt) and spleen (plīhan) of the foetus are formed from blood, the phupphusa 68 from the foam (phena) of blood, the unduka 69 from the waste products (kitta) of blood (4.25); the intestines, ano-rectal region and bladder are formed from the pure parts (prasada) of blood and kapha, acted upon by pitta and vāta (4.26-27ab); the tongue is formed from the pure parts of kapha, blood and muscular tissue (4.27cd-28ab); the channels (srotas) arise from the combined action of vāta and ūṣman⁷⁰ (4.28cd); the peśīs (muscles) arise in the same way; vāta and pitta are also the agents transforming (part of) the muscles, in combination with the sneha of medas, into sirās and snāyus; mild (mrdu) heating (pāka) leads to the formation of sirās, strong (khara) heating to the formation of snāyus (4.29–30ab); repeated action of vata leads to the formation of asayas (receptacles) (4.30cd); the kidneys (vrkka) arise from the pure parts of blood and fatty tissue (medas), the testicles (vrsana) from the pure parts of muscular tissue (māmsa), blood, kapha and fatty tissue (medas), the heart from the pure parts of blood and kapha; the heart is the basis (āśraya) of the prāna-transporting dhamanīs; below the heart, on the left side, are spleen and phupphusa 71 located, on the right side liver and kloman; the heart is in particular the seat of consciousness (cetana), which explains that all living beings sleep when it is covered by tamas (4.31); the heart resembles an inverted water-lily (pundarīka);⁷² it is open when one is awake and closed during sleep (4.32); sleep in general and types of sleep (4.33–35); ⁷³ the origin of dreams (4.36); a mind (bhūtātman), although awake, may be called sleeping when tamas has increased in it and affected the senses (4.37); rules concerning sleeping and waking, in particular day sleeping (divāsvapna) (4.38-41);⁷⁴ the aetiology of insomnia (nidrānāśa) (4.42);⁷⁵ the treatment of insomnia (4.43-46): ⁷⁶ the treatment of excessive sleep (nidrātivoga) (4.47);⁷⁷ indications for waking at night and sleeping by day (4.48);⁷⁸ definitions of tandrā (drowsiness), ⁷⁹ irmbha (yawning), klama (a sense of tiredness without physical exertion), 80 ālasya (laziness), 81 utkleśa (nausea accompanied by salivation), 82 glāni (languor), 83 and gaurava (a sense of heaviness) (4.49-55); 84 mūrchā (fainting) arises from pitta and tamas, bhrama (vertigo) from rajas, pitta and vāta, tandrā from tamas, vāta and kapha, sleep from kapha and tamas (4.56); the foetus grows thanks to the rasa (of the mother) and the blowing (ādhmāna) of vāta (4.57); traditionally, fire (jyotis) is firmly established in the umbilical region, the (foetal) body grows through the fanning (of this fire) by vāta; vāta, with the assistance of ūsman (= pitta), opens the channels (srotas), running in various directions; the pupil (drsti) and the pores of

the hairs (romakūpa) never increase in size and number according to Dhanvantari; the nails and the hairs of the head keep growing even if the body decays, which is due to svabhāva, acting as prakrti (4.58-61); the seven constitutions (prakrti): (dominated) by one of the dosas, two dosas or all the dosas together (4.62); the dosa prevailing at the time of union of semen (sukra) and female procreational fluid (sonita) determines the constitution (4.63); the physical and mental characteristics of persons with a constitution dominated by vata (4.64-67), pitta (4.68-71), kapha (4.72-76), 85 or a mixture of the dosas (4.77); 86 changes with regard to one's constitution do not occur naturally (svabhāvena) and point to the approach of death (4.78);87 just as an insect or other small animal (kīta), born in an environment full of poisonous substances, does not suffer any harm, the constitution is never a cause of suffering (4.79); the five constitutions in which one of the mahābhūtas predominates, as acknowledged by some authorities; 88 those in which vayu, agni (fire) and jala (water) predominate are the same as those dominated by vata, pitta and kapha; the constitutions with a predominance of earth (the parthiva constitution) and akasa (the nabhasa constitution) possess their own distinctive characteristics (4.80);89 the mental characteristics of persons with a preponderance of sattva, rajas or tamas; 90 the seven sattvika types described are: brahma-, māhendra-, 91 vāruna-, kaubera-, gāndharva-, yāmya-, and rsisattva⁹² or -kāya; the six tāmasa types are: āsura-, sarpa-, śākuna-, rāksasa-, paiśāca-, and pretasattva or -kāya; the three tāmasa types are: pāśava-, matsya-, and vānaspatvasattva or -kāva (4.81–98).

Chapter five, called śarīrasamkhyāvyākaraṇa, gives an exposition on human anatomy and the numbers of the various structures present in the body. 93

The product of the union of śukra and śonita, coalesced with ātman, prakṛti and the vikāras (evolved from prakṛti), and staying in the uterus, is called garbha (embryo); this garbha, stably lodged (avasthita) there thanks to its cetanā, is subject to the dividing action of vāta, maturational action of fire (tejas), moistening action of water, and the consolidating action of earth, while ākāśa makes it grow; after the differentiation of various body parts, such as hands, feet, tongue, nose, ears, buttocks, etc., it is called śarīra (body); this body has six main parts (anga): the four extenities (śākhā), the trunk (madhya), and the head (5.3). 94

The minor parts of the body (pratyanga) are enumerated; single parts are: head, ⁹⁵ abdomen, back, umbilical region, forehead, nose, chin, urinary bladder, and neck; paired parts are: ears, eyes, eyebrows, temples, shoulders, cheeks, axillae (kakṣa), breasts, testicles, lateral parts of the chest (pārśva), buttocks (sphic), knees, elbows (kūpara), arms, and legs; the fingers and toes are twenty in number; the channels (srotas) will be described later (5.4). ⁹⁶

Components of the body are: the layers of the skin, kalās, dhātus, impurities (mala), doṣas, liver and spleen, phupphusa, uṇḍuka, heart, receptacles (āśaya), intestines, kidneys, channels (srotas), kaṇḍarās, jālas, kūrcas, rajjus, sevanīs, saṇṇghātas, sīmantas, bones, junctures (sandhi), snāyus, peśīs, marmans, sirās, dhamanīs, and channels (srotas) of the yogavaha type⁹⁷ (5.5).

The numbers of these components: seven layers of the skin, seven kalas, seven re-

ceptacles, seven dhātus, seven hundred sirās, five hundred pešīs, nine hundred snāyus, three hundred bones, two hundred and ten junctures, one hundred and seven marinans, twenty-four dhamanīs, three doṣas, three impurities, nine channels, (sixteen kaṇḍarās, sixteen jālas, six kūrcas, four rajjus, seven sevanīs, fourteen samgḥātas, fourteen sīmantas, twenty-two channels of the yogavaha type, and two kinds of intestine) (5.6).

Structures already described are the layers of the skin, kalās, dhātus, impurities, dosas, liver and spleen, phupphusa, unduka, heart, and kidneys (5.7). 99

The receptacles are: the receptacles of vata, pitta, kapha and blood, the amasaya, pakvāśaya, and mūtrāśaya (the urinary bladder); females possess an eighth receptacle. the uterus (garbhāśaya) (5.8). The length of the intestines is three and a half vyāma 100 in males; they are half a vyāma shorter in females (5.9). The nine channels (srotas) with an opening to the exterior (bahirmukha) 101 are: the ears, eyes, mouth, nostrils, anus (guda) and urethra (medhra); three additional channels are present in females: those in the breasts and the one transporting the (menstrual) blood (5.10). Out of the sixteen kandaras four are found in the legs; the same number is present in the arms, neck and back; the nails are the terminal offshoots (agrapraroha) of the kandarās of hands and feet; the penis (medhra) is the terminal part of the kandarās of the neck, which are connected with the heart and run downwards; the buttocks (bimba) form the terminal part of those downwards going kandarās which connect back and pelvic region (śroni); the upwards going off-shoots of the four groups of four kandarās are situated in the vaulted parts (bimba) 102 of the head, thighs, chest (vaksas), shoulder regions (amsapindaka), etc. (5.11). Muscular tissue, sirās, snāyus and bones have four jālas (network-like structures) 103 each; these are situated in the regions of the wrists (manibandha) and ankles (gulpha); their component parts are connected with each other and interpenetrate to such an extent that numerous holes are formed (parasparagavāksita); the body abounds in these structures with large numbers of perforations (5.12). There are six kūrcas (brush-like structures): two in the hands, two in the feet, one in the neck, and one in the penis (5.13). ¹⁰⁴ There are four large rajjus (cords) of muscular tissue; they are situated on both sides of the vertebral column (prsthavamsa), 105 two of them superficially, two of them more deeply; they serve to bind together the muscles (peśī) (15.14). 106 The sevanīs are seven in number: 107 five of them are present in the skull, 108 one is found on the tongue and one on the penis; 109 one should avoid these sevanīs during surgical interventions (5.15). The asthisamghātas (groups of bones) are fourteen in number; 110 three of these are found in ankle, knee and groin (vanksana) of each leg; three are present in the corresponding parts of each arm; one is found in the trika¹¹¹ and one in the head (5.16); the sīmantas are fourteen in number and found at the same places as the asthisamghātas, being connected with them; some are of the opinion that the sīmantas are eighteen in number 112 (5.17).

The bones are three hundred and sixty in number according to those who follow the (āyur)veda, ¹¹³ but the recognized number is three hundred in surgical treaties (śalyatantra). ¹¹⁴ One hundred and twenty out of these are found in the extremities (śākhā), one hundred and seventeen in the pelvic region (śroṇi), lateral parts of the thorax (pārśva), back and chest, and sixty-three above the neck (5.18). ¹¹⁵

Each toe has three bones, which makes a total of fifteen in each foot; ten bones are present in the sole, tarsal region (kūrca) and ankle region (gulpha); the heel region (pārṣṇi) possesses one bone; the lower leg (janghā) has two bones; the knee and thigh have one bone each; one lower extremity (sakthi) has therefore thirty bones; the same number is present in the other lower and in the two upper extremities.

The pelvic region (śroṇi) has five bones, four of which are found in the anal region (guda), pubic region (bhaga) and glutaeal region (nitamba), while one is present in the sacral region (trika). Thirty-six bones are found in each side of the chest (pārśva); the back possesses thirty and the chest eight bones; the scapulae (aṃsaphalaka) are two in number.

The neck has nine and the trachea (kanthanādī) four bones; the jaws (hanu) have two bones. The teeth are thirty-two in number. The nose has three bones; the palate (tālu) has one bone; each of the cheeks (gaṇḍa), ears and temples has one bone; the skull possesses six bones (5.19).

Bones are of five types: flat bones (kapāla), the type called rucaka, cartilages (taruṇa), ring-like bones (valaya), and tubular ones (nalaka). 116

Flat bones are found in the knee, pelvic region (nitamba), shoulder region (aṃsa), cheek, palate, temple, and head; the teeth are of the rucaka type; cartilages are found in nose, ear, throat (grīvā), and the eye socket (akṣikoṣa); ring-like bones are found in the lateral parts of the chest, the back, and the front part of the chest (uras); the remaining bones are of the tubular type (5.20).

The importance of the skeleton is emphasized in a few verses (5.21–23).

Joints and other junctures (sandhi) are of two types: movable (ceṣṭāvant) and immovable (sthira); movable sandhis are found in the extremities, jaws and pelvic region (kaṭi); all the other ones are immovable (5.24–25). 117

The joints and other junctures are two hundred and ten in number; ¹¹⁸ out of these, sixty-eight are found in the extremities, fifty-nine in the trunk, and eighty-three in the region above the neck.

The toes have three sandhis, apart from the great toe, which has two; ¹¹⁹ this makes a total of fourteen. Knee, ankle and groin have one sandhi each, which makes a total of seventeen for one lower extremity. The same number is found is the other lower and the two upper extremities. Three sandhis are present in the pelvis and twenty-four in the vertebral column; the same number is present in the lateral parts of the chest; the front part of the chest has a number of eight. Eight sandhis are found in the neck (grīvā) and three in the throat (kaṇṭha).

Eighteen sandhis are present in the nāḍīs connected with heart and kloman. ¹²⁰ The sandhis of the roots of the teeth are equal in number to the teeth. One sandhi is found in the kākalaka ¹²¹ and the nose, two are present in the eyelids, one is found in each cheek, ear and temple; the sandhis of the jaws are two in number; the same number of sandhis is present above the eyebrows and temples; five sandhis are found in the bones of the skull, and one in the (part of the head called) mūrdhan ¹²² (5.26).

San**d**his are of eight types: 123 kora, 124 ulūkhala, 125 sāmudga, 126 pratara, 127 tunnasevanī, 128 vāyasatunda, 129 mandala, 130 and sankhāvarta. 131

Sandhis of the kora type are present in fingers and toes, wrists (manibandha), an-

kles, knees, and elbows (kūrpara); the ulūkhala type is found in the axillae (kakṣā), groins (vankṣaṇa) and teeth, the sāmudga type in the aṃsapīṭha, ¹³² ano-rectal region, pubic region (bhaga) and glutaeal region (nitamba), the pratara type in the neck and vertebral column, the tunnasevanī type in the region of the flat bones of cranium and pelvis (kaṭī), the vāyasatuṇ�a type on each side of the jaw, the maṇḍala type in the nāḍīs of throat, heart, eyes and kloman, the śaṅkhāvarta type in the ears and the śṛṇgāṭakas ¹³³ (5.27). These are the sandhis between bony structures.

The sandhis of muscles (peśī), snāyus and sirās are innumerable (5.28).

The snāyus ¹³⁴ are nine hundred in number. ¹³⁵ Six hundred is their number in the extremities, two hundred and thirty in the viscera (koṣṭha), and seventy in the region of the neck and upwards of it. Each toe has six snāyus, which makes a total of thirty in one foot; the same number is found in the sole, kūrca and ankle, as well as in the lower leg; the knee has ten, the thigh forty, and the groin ten of them; the total number is one hundred and fifty in one lower extremity; the same applies to the other lower extremity and the two arms. Sixty snāyus are present in the pelvic region (kaṭi), eighty in the back, sixty in the lateral parts of the chest, thirty in the front part of the chest. Thirty-six snāyus has the neck, while the head possesses a number of thirty-four of them (5.29).

Snāyus are of four types: pratānavant (branched), vrtta (round), prthu (flat), and suṣira (provided with holes). ¹³⁶ The branched ones are found in the extremities and all the sandhis; the round ones are called kaṇḍarā; snāyus with holes are present in āmāśaya, pakvāśaya and bladder; the flat ones occur in the lateral and front parts of the chest, the back and the head (5.30–32).

The sandhis, fastened with many snāyus, sustain the human frame, as a boat, made of timber and fastened by many bindings, can bear the weight of a large number of people (5.33–34). Injuries to the snāyus are more serious than those affecting bones, muscles, sirās and sandhis (5.35). A physician with a thorough knowledge of the superficial and deep snāyus is able to extract successfully a deeply lodged foreign body (5.36).

The muscles (peśī) are five hundred in number. ¹³⁷ Four hundred are found in the extremities, sixty-six in the trunk (koṣṭha), thirty-four in the neck and upwards of it. Each toe has three muscles, which makes a total of fifteen for all the toes; the anterior part of the foot (prapada) ¹³⁸ and the tarsal region (kūrca) have ten muscles each; the same number is present in the ankle region (gulpha) and sole; between the ankle and the knee are twenty muscles; the knee region has five, the thigh twenty and the region of the groin ten muscles; thus one whole leg (sakthi) has a total of one hundred muscles. The other leg and the two arms possess an identical number. The anal region (pāyu) has three muscles, the penis one, the sevanī (raphe) one, the scrotum two, each buttock (sphic) five, the head of the bladder (bastiśiras) two, the abdomen five, the umbilical region one muscle(s); two sets of five long muscles are present in the region of the back; six muscles are present in the two sides of the chest (pārśva), ten in its front part (vakṣas), seven in the two regions of the clavicles (akṣaka) and shoulders (aɪṇsa), two in heart and āmāśaya, six in liver, spleen and uṇḍuka. The neck has four muscles, the jaws have a number of eight; kākalaka and throat (gala) have one muscle each; the palate has

two muscles; one muscle is present in the tongue; the lips, nose and eyes possess two muscles; the cheeks have four and the ears two muscles; the forehead has four muscles; the head possesses one muscle. ¹³⁹ A total number of five hundred muscles is reached in this way (5.37).

The sirās, snāyus, bones, parvans and sandhis ¹⁴⁰ derive their strength from the muscles which cover them (5.38).

Women possess twenty additional muscles: ¹⁴¹ each breast has five muscles, which develop during puberty; four muscles are found in the vagina and external genitals (apatyapatha): two spreading ones inside and two circular (vrtta) ones outside, at the opening; ¹⁴² three muscles are situated at the garbhacchidra ¹⁴³ and three other ones carry śukra and ārtava. ¹⁴⁴ The uterus (garbhaśayyā) lies between pittāśaya and pakvāśaya (5.39).

The various characteristics of muscles are enumerated, such as largeness, smallness, thickness, thinness, etc. (5.40).

The muscles which have been mentioned as present in the penis and scrotum of males are found in the interior of the female body, where they cover the uterus (phala) (5.41). 145

The marmans, sirās, dhamanīs and srotases will be described elsewhere (5.42).

The female genital tract (yoni) resembles the conch-shell called śańkhanābhi and possesses three folds (āvarta); the foetus is lodged in the third fold, called garbha-śayyā, ¹⁴⁶ which has the form of the mouth part of a rohita fish ¹⁴⁷ (5.43–44). ¹⁴⁸ The foetus lies doubled up (ābhugna) in the uterus (garbhāśaya), with its head pointed downwards; ¹⁴⁹ due to svabhāva, ¹⁵⁰ it moves towards the birth-channel (yoni), head first, at the time of delivery (5.45).

The description of the whole body, given in this chapter, is a characteristic element of the surgical science, not found in the other divisions (of āyurveda) (5.46).

A surgeon (śalyahartar), who wants to acquire certain (niḥsaṃśaya) anatomical knowledge, should, with that aim in mind, thoroughly examine a dead body, after cleansing it, for increase of knowledge arises from the combination of perception (pratyakṣa) and study of the science (5.47-48). For this purpose, a corpse should be selected which is intact, originating from a person who has not died from poison, has not suffered from a disease for a long time, and has not lived until a very old age. ¹⁵¹ This corpse, with the intestines and their contents removed, should be wrapped in coverings of muñja grass, bark, kuśa grass, śaṇa (hemp), or any other suitable material, and placed in a running stream, kept within a cage (pañjara), at a place where it is not easily noticed; it should be left there in order to decompose; then, after seven days, one should take it out for examination, very gradually scraping away all the tissues, beginning with the skin, and, subsequently, the major and minor external and internal parts of the body which have been mentioned; the scraping away should be carried out by means of a brush (kūrca), made of uśīra grass, animal hair (bāla), veņu (bamboo), balbaja grass, or any other suitable material (5.49). ¹⁵²

The vibhu (ātman), being extremely subtle, cannot be perceived with (normal) eyes, but only by means of (the sight acquired through) spiritual knowledge (jñāna) and penance (tapas) (5.50).

An expert is one who has acquired practical and theoretical knowledge of the body; practice should be started after clearing away all doubts by seeing and hearing (5.51).

Chapter six, called pratyekamarmanirdeśa, is devoted to the vital and vulnerable areas of the body called marman. 153

The total number of marmans is one hundred and seven. ¹⁵⁴ Five groups are distinguished: marmans located in muscular tissue, sirās, snāyus, bones, and junctures (sandhi). Other types of marman do not exist (6.3). ¹⁵⁵ Eleven marmans are found in the muscular tissue, forty-one in the sirās, twenty-seven in the snāyus, eight in the bones, and twenty in the junctures, which makes a total of one hundred and seven (6.4).

Eleven marmans are present in each leg (sakthi) and arm; ¹⁵⁶ twelve are present in abdomen and chest, fourteen in the back, and thirty-seven in the neck and the region above the neck (6.5).

The marmans in the leg are: kṣipra, ¹⁵⁷ talalırdaya, ¹⁵⁸ kūrca, ¹⁵⁹ kūrcaśiras, ¹⁶⁰ gulpha, ¹⁶¹ indrabasti, ¹⁶² jānu, ¹⁶³ āṇī, ¹⁶⁴ urvī, ¹⁶⁵ lohitākṣa, ¹⁶⁶ and viṭapa; ¹⁶⁷ the marmans in abdomen and chest are: guda, ¹⁶⁸ basti, ¹⁶⁹ nābhi, ¹⁷⁰ hṛdaya, ¹⁷¹ and the following paired ones: stanamūla, ¹⁷² stanarohita, ¹⁷³ apalāpa, ¹⁷⁴ and apastambha; ¹⁷⁵ the marmans in the back are: kaṭīkataruṇa, ¹⁷⁶ kukundara, ¹⁷⁷ nitamba, ¹⁷⁸ pārśvasandhi, ¹⁷⁹ bṛhatī, ¹⁸⁰ aṃṣsaphalaka, ¹⁸¹ and aṃṣsa, ¹⁸² all of which are present in pairs; the marmans in the arms are: kṣipra, ¹⁸³ talahṛdaya, ¹⁸⁴ kūrca, ¹⁸⁵ kūrcaśiras, ¹⁸⁶ maṇibandha, ¹⁸⁷ indrabasti, ¹⁸⁸ kūrpara, ¹⁸⁹ āṇī, ¹⁹⁰ urvī, ¹⁹¹ lohitākṣa, ¹⁹² and kakṣadhara; ¹⁹³ the marmans in the region above the clavicles (jatru) are: four dhamanīs, ¹⁹⁴ eight māṭṛkās, ¹⁹⁵ two kṛkāṭikās, ¹⁹⁶ two vidhuras, ¹⁹⁷ two phaṇas, ¹⁹⁸ two apāṅgas, ¹⁹⁹ two āvartas, ²⁰⁰ two utkṣepas, ²⁰¹ two śankhas, ²⁰² one sthapanī, ²⁰³, five sīmantas, ²⁰⁴ four śṛṅgāṭakas, ²⁰⁵ and one adhipati ²⁰⁶ (6.6).

Talahrdaya, indrabasti, stanarohita and guda are marmans of the muscular tissue; nīladhamanī, mātrkā, śrngāṭaka, apānga, sthapanī, phaṇa, stanamūla, apalāpa, apastambha, hrdaya, nābhi, pārśvasandhi, bṛhatī, lohitākṣa, and urvī are marmans of the sirās; āṇī, viṭapa, kakṣadhara, kūrca, kūrcaśiras, basti, kṣipra, amṣa, vidhura, and utkṣepa are marmans of the snāyus; kaṭīkataruṇa, nitamba, aṃṣaphalaka and śankha are marmans of the bones; jānu, kūrpara, sīmanta, adhipati, gulpha, maṇibandha, kukundara, āvarta, and krkātikā are marmans of the sandhis (6.7).

These marmans are classified into five groups: instantly fatal (sadyaḥprāṇahara), fatal after a lapse of time (kālāntaraprāṇahara), fatal on extraction of a śalya (viśalyaghna), disabling (vaikalyakara), and painful (rujākara); the numbers of these five groups are: nineteen, thirty-three, tbree, forty-four, and eight (6.8).

To the first group belong śṛṇgāṭaka, adhipati, śaṅkha, kaṇṭhasirā, ²⁰⁷guda, hṛdaya, basti, and nābhi; to the second group belong the marmans of the chest, sīmanta, tala(hṛdaya), kṣipra, indrabasti, kaṭīkataruṇa, pārśvasandhi, bṛhatī, and nitamba; to the third group belong the two utkṣepas and the sthapanī; to the fourth group belong lohitākṣa, āṇī, jānu, urvī, kūrca, viṭapa, kūrpara, kukundara, kakṣadhara, vidhura, kṛkāṭikā, aṃsa, aṃsaphalaka, apāṅga, nīlā, ²⁰⁸ manyā, ²⁰⁹ phaṇa, and āvarta; to the fifth group belong gulpha, maṇibandha, and kūrcaśiras. In jury at the kṣipras is either immediately fatal or after some time (6.9–14).

Marmans are meetingplaces (samnipāta) of muscular tissue, sirās, snāyus, bones and sandhis; due to their inherent nature (svabhāva), they are, in particular, seats of the prānas, which explains the features which arise when they are in jured (6.15).

The sadyaḥprāṇahara group of marmans shows predominantly fiery characteristics; the kālāntaraprāṇahara group has characteristics pointing to a predominance of fire and water; the viśalyaghna group possesses properties mainly related to vāta, while those of the vaikalyakara group are mainly related to water; the characteristics of the nujākara group are dominated by a mixture of fire and vāta (6.16).

An alternative view, brought forward by some authorities, is as follows: all five components (muscular tissue, sirā, snāyu, bone, sandhi) of a marman are manifestly present in the sadyaḥprāṇahara group; the other four groups are characterized by the absence or relative insignificance of one, two, three or four of the components. This view is not correct, since blood appears even when a marman of the bones is injured (6.17).

Usually, the four types of sirā ²¹⁰ are present in a marman; they provide the other four components with the substances needed by them and thus maintain the body; on injury to a marman, vāta increases, surrounds the sirās, and causes intense pains; the body gets damaged and consciousness is impaired. This is the reason for the basic rule that a physician should always carefully examine a marman before proceeding, for example, to the extraction of a śalya (6.18–21).

The effects of an injury to one of the five groups of marman become gradually milder when this injury occurs in the neighbourhood (anta)²¹¹ of a marman (6.22). Injury to a sadyahprāṇahara marman is fatal within a week; injury to a kālāntaraprāṇahara marman within half a month or a month; injury to a kṣipra may, however, sometimes quickly lead to death; injury to marmans of the viśalyaghna and vaikalyakara groups are sometimes lethal (6.23).

The location of the marmans in the extremities and the disorders resulting when they are injured are described (6.24); the same regarding the marmans in abdomen and chest (6.25), back (6.26), neck and head (6.27);²¹² the measurements of the marmans (6.28–29);²¹³ the usefulness of knowledge concerning these measurements (6.30).

The fact that amputation of a limb does not lead to death is explained (6.31); in jury to the marmans called kṣipra and talahṛdaya results in the loss of very much blood and in severe pain; amputation of hand or foot above the wrist or ankle is necessary in such cases in order to save the life of the patient (6.32–33ab).

The importance of knowledge of the marmans is stressed (6.33cd-34ab). All kinds of traumata, loss of limbs, etc., may be lived through if the marmans remain free from injury (6.34cd-35ab). One does not survive injury to the marmans, because these are the seats of soma (= kapha), vāta, tejas (= pitta), sattva, rajas, tamas, and the bhūtātman (6.35-36ab).

The features of injury to each of the five groups of marman are described (6.36cd–40). The signs of injury to parts lying near a marman resemble those of injury to the marman itself (6.41). Injury to a marman has always serious consequences, leading to either disability or death (6.42), and belongs to the conditions which are the most difficult to treat (6.43).

Chapter seven, called sirāvarṇavibhaktiśārīra, is devoted to the sirās. The seven hundred sirās²¹⁴ provide the body with what it needs, thus protecting and preserving it. The navel is the origin (mūla) of the sirās; thence they spread, upwards, downwards and obliquely (7.3). The navel, to which all the sirās are attached, is the seat of the prāṇas; it resembles the nave of a wheel (cakranābhi), surrounded by spokes (araka) (7.4–5).

There are forty principal sirās (mūlasirā), divided into four groups of ten, which transport vāta, pitta, kapha and blood; each group splits up into one hundred and seventy-five branches when reaching their respective seats; these seats are the seats of vāta, pitta, kapha, and liver and spleen (7.6).

One leg (sakthi) has twenty-five sirās which carry vāta; the other leg and the two arms possess the same number. The trunk (koṣṭha) has thirty-four of these sirās; eight of these are present in the ano-rectal region (guda), penis (meḍhra) and pelvic region (śroṇi); two are present in each lateral part of the chest (pārśva), six in the back, six in the abdomen, and ten in the anterior part of the chest (vakṣas). Forty-one sirās are found in the region above the clavicles; fourteen among these are present in the neck, four in the ears, nine in the tongue, six in the nose, and eight in the eyes. This makes a total of one hundred and seventy-five vāta-carrying sirās. The other sirās are similarly distributed, with this difference that the eyes have ten and the ears two sirās which transport pitta (7.7).

The functions of normal vāta, pitta, kapha and blood, when being transported in their sirās, are described; when excited, they cause the diseases known to be caused by them (7.8–15). Sirās which exclusively carry vāta, pitta, kapha or blood do not exist, for corrupted doṣas, coalesced with each other (mūrchita) and coursing through (the whole body), will certainly leave their own pathways (unmārgagamana); for this reason the sirās are called sarvavahā, i.e., transporting the whole (group mentioned) (7.16–17).

The vāta-transporting sirās are ruddy (aruṇa) in colour, those transporting pitta are warm and dark blue (nīla), those carrying kapha are light (gaura) in colour, cold and stable (sthira), those carrying blood are red (rohiṇa) and neither particularly warm nor particularly cold (7.18).

Some of the sirās should not be opened, because this would result in disability (vaikalya) or death. Regarded as not be pierced (avyadhya) are sixteen sirās in the extremities, thirty-two in the trunk, and fifty in the region above the clavicles (7.19-21).

Out of the hundred sirās in a leg the one called jāladharā ²¹⁵ should not be pierced, nor three internal ones, namely the two urvīs and the lohitākṣa; this also applies to the other leg and the two arms, which makes a total of sixteen unsuitable sirās in the extremities. Out of the thirty-two sirās in the pelvic region eight should not be cut, namely the two present in each viṭapa and the two in each kaṭīkataruṇa; out of the eight sirās in each lateral part of the chest one should avoid the one going upwards on each side and the two located in the pārśvasandhis; out of the twenty-four sirās found on each side of the vertebral column ²¹⁶ one should avoid the two upwards going ones of the bṛhatīs; out of the twenty-four sirās of the abdomen one should avoid the two situated above the penis and the two found on each side of the line of hair between pubic region and

navel (romarājī); ²¹⁷ out of the forty sirās in the anterior part of the chest (vakṣas) one should avoid a number of fourteen: two in the cardiac region, two in each stanamūla, and eight in the two stanarohitas, apalāpas and apastambhas; thus the total of sirās to be avoided in the trunk is thirty-two.

One hundred and sixty-four sirās are found in the region above the clavicles; the neck has fifty-six sirās, out of which sixteen should be avoided: the twelve which are called marman, 218 the two krkātikās and the two vidhuras; out of the eight sirās in the region of each of the jaws, ²¹⁹ one should avoid the two dhamanīs of each joint; out of the thirty-six sirās of the tongue, one should not cut the sixteen of the inferior surface, the two which are rasavahā (carrying taste) and the two which are vāgvahā (carrying speech); out of the twenty-four sirās of the nasal region, one should avoid those four which are situated near the nose (aupanāsika) and the one in the soft part of the palate; ²²⁰ out of the thirty-eight²²¹ sirās of the eyes, one should avoid the sirā of each outer corner of the eye; out of the ten sirās of the ears, one should avoid the śabdavāhinī (sound-carrying) sirā; to be avoided among the sixty sirās of the forehead (lalāta), which belong to the regions of nose and eyes, 222 are the four lying near the hair line (keśānta), one of each āvarta, and the one of the sthapanī; out of the ten sirās of the temples (śańkha),²²³ one should avoid the sirā of each śańkhasandhi; out of the twelve sirās of the head, one should avoid the two in the utksepas, the one in each of the (five) sīmantas, and the one in the adhipati:²²⁴ thus, fifty sirās in the region above the clavicles should be avoided (7.22). 225

The last verse compares the sirās, which, taking their origin from the navel, spread through the whole body, with the roots of a lotus, which, taking their origin from the rhizome (kanda), spread through the water (7.23).

Chapter eight is devoted to phlebotomy (sirāvyadhavidhi).

The subjects dealt with are: types of patients in whom phlebotomy should not be performed; sirās unfit for the purpose: those mentioned as such (in the preceding chapter), sirās which are suitable but invisible, suitable and visible sirās which cannot be compressed (avantrita) or which on compression do not raise up (8.3); indications for phlebotomy (8.4-5); the preparation of the patient (8.6); climatic contra-indications (8.7); the positioning of the patient and the type of bandaging to be employed for the •pening of a sirā in the head, the oral cavity excepted; the positioning and bandaging for the opening of a sirā in a leg or arm; the procedure to be carried out when the patient suffers from grdhrasī or viśvācī; the correct techniques for the opening of a sirā in the pelvic region (sronī), back or shoulders (skandha), abdomen or chest, lateral parts of the chest, penis, tongue, palate or gums; other techniques should be devised according to the requirements of the circumstances (8.8); the incision should have the depth of a barleycorn (yava) in fleshy parts of the body, but of half a barleycorn or a grain of rice only elsewhere; the instrument to be used is the vrīhimukha; the incision should be half a barleycorn deep and be made with a kuthārikā in bony areas (8.9); suitable days for phlebotomy in rainy season, summer and winter (8.10); the signs of successful phlebotomy (8.11-12); causes of improper bleeding after phlebotomy (8.13); indications for repetition of the procedure (8.14); the flow of blood should be checked when still a remnant of the dosa is present in it; this remnant should be treated with pacifying measures (8.15); the maximum amount of blood to be let in a strong and adult patient with profuse dosas is a prastha²²⁶ (8.16); the suitable sites for phlebotomy in a large number of diseases (8.17); the twenty types of defective phlebotomy and their description: durviddhā (inefficient), atividdhā (excessive), kuñcitā (crooked), piccitā (crushed by a blunt instrument), kuttitā (lacerated), apasrutā (followed by only slight bleeding), adhyudīrnā (too widely incised), anteviddhā (followed by slight bleeding due to a marginal incision), parisuskā (practised on a patient with a decrease of blood and an increase of vata), kūnitā (incised to only a quarter of the proper length), vepitā (unsuccessful phlebotomy on a quivering sirā), anutthitaviddhā (unsuccessful phlebotomy on a sirā that is not raised up), śastrahatā (total transection of the sirā), tiryagviddhā (an almost total transection of the sirā), aviddhā (unsuccessful phlebotomy in spite of several attempts with an unsuitable instrument), avyadhyā (carried out on a sirā that should not be opened), vidrutā (carelessly carried out), dhenukā (a deep incision after several attempts), and punahpunarviddhā (repeated small incisions); complications due to improper phlebotomy (8.18-19); phlebotomy is described as a difficult technique, because sirās are not steady by their inherent nature (svabhāva) and roll to and fro like fishes (8.20-21); bloodletting by means of phlebotomy may be regarded as half the science of surgery and is as important as the treatment with enemas in internal medicine (8.22-23); after-treatment (8.24); the various methods of bloodletting, namely phlebotomy, the application of horns, gourds, leeches, and scarifications (pada), should be employed in the reverse order, dependent on the severity of the disease; leeches should be used for the extraction of blood from deep-seated siras; scarifications (pracchanna) are useful when collections (piridita) of blood are present; phlebotomy is indicated when the (corrupted) blood has spread all over the body; horns or gourds should be used when the (corrupted) blood is present in the skin (8.25–26).

Chapter nine, called dhamanīvyākarana, contains an exposition on the dhamanīs.

Twenty-four dhamanīs take their origin from the umbilical region. ²²⁷ The opinion of some authorities that there is no difference between the structures called sirā, dhamanī and srotas, because the latter two are simply varieties of sirā, is not correct. Dhamanīs possess their own characteristics, have their own number, and perform their own functions; they are also distinct according to the (medical) tradition. The confusion with the structures called sirā and srotas derives from their anatomical vicinity, similarity in function, and (shared) minuteness (9.3). ²²⁸ Out of the twenty-four dhamanīs, ten run upwards, ten downwards, and four in an oblique direction (9.4).

The ten upwards running dhamanīs go to the heart, where each divides into three branches, making thus a total of thirty. Vāta, pitta, kapha, blood and rasa are transported by two dhamanīs each; sound, vision, taste and smell are transported by two dhamanīs each; two dhamanīs serve speech, two are for other sounds (ghoṣa), two for sleep, two for awakening, two for shedding tears; two dhamanīs serve milk secretion in women and transport semen in men. These dhamanīs sustain and maintain the parts of the body above the umbilical region (9.5).

The functions of the downwards running dhamanīs are described. These go to the

pittāśaya, between the āmāśaya and pakvāśaya, where each divides into three branches. Vāta, pitta, kapha, blood and rasa are carried by two dhamanīs each; two dhamanīs, belonging to the intestines, transport (nutrients derived from the) food; two transport water; two, belonging to the urinary bladder, transport urine; two transport semen and two other ones are for its ejaculation (visarga); in females, the same dhamanīs carry and discharge ārtava; two dhamanīs, connected to the large intestine, serve defecation; the remaining eight dhamanīs serve perspiration. These dhamanīs sustain and maintain the parts of the body below the umbilical region (9.7).

The four obliquely running dhamanīs divide and re-divide into hundreds and thousands (of branches); they are actually countless, form networks in the body and bind it together. Their openings are connected with the pores of the hairs (romakūpa), where they carry sweat and rasa, thus providing the body with essential substances, internally and externally. They carry the potent constituents (vīrya) of substances used for inunction (abhyanga), medicinal baths (pariṣeka and avagāha), and plasters (ālepana), to the interior of the body; they are the structures responsible for experiencing agreeable and disagreeable sensations of touch (9.9).

The dhamanīs possess pores, which are just like those present in mṛṇāla and bisa; ²²⁹ these pores serve to supply the body with rasa (9.10).

The dhamanīs are made up of the five mahābhūtas, are present in the five sense organs, and provide the human being with the sensations derived from these senses, until the dissolution of the body (9.11).

The characteristic signs produced by injury to the structures called channel (srotas) are described. The channels distinguished are those called prāṇavaha, annavaha, udakavaha, rasavaha, raktavaha, māṇsavaha, medovaha, mūtravaha, purīṣavaha, śukravaha, and ārtavavaha. ²³⁰

The heart and the dhamanīs carrying rasa constitute the roots of the two prārṇa-transporting channels; the āmāśaya and the anna ²³¹-carrying dhamanīs are the roots of the two anna-transporting channels, palate and kloman of the two water-transporting (udakavaha) channels, the heart and the rasa-carrying dhamanīs of the two rasa-transporting channels; liver, spleen and the blood-carrying dhamanīs are the roots of the two blood-transporting channels, snāyus, the skin and the blood-carrying dhamanīs the roots of the two muscular tissue-transporting channels, the pelvic region (kaṭi) and kidneys of the two fatty tissue-transporting channels, urinary bladder and penis of the two urine-transporting channels; pakvāśaya and ano-rectal region constitute the roots of the two faeces-transporting channels, breasts and testicles of the two seed-transporting channels, uterus (garbhāśaya) and the ārtava-carrying dhamanīs of the two ārtava-transporting channels. ²³²

The disorders resulting from injury to each group of these channels are enumerated. Severe pain follows upon cuts in the sevanīs, together with the signs of injury to bladder and ano-rectal region. Injury to a channel may be treated like a wound after extraction of a śalya, but the prospect of recovery should never be held out (9.12).

Chapter ten, ²³³ called garbhiṇīvyākaraṇa, contains an exposition on the care for women during pregnancy, during delivery, and in the puerperium, followed by the

care for the newborn child.

The subjects dealt with are: rules regarding behaviour and diet to be observed by a pregnant woman (10.3); ²³⁴ the regimen to be followed from the first up to the eighth month of pregnancy (10.4); ²³⁵ the construction of the maternity home (sūtikāgāra); its equipment (10.5);²³⁶ the signs of approaching labour (10.6); the signs of early labour (10.7);²³⁷ the management of labour and delivery (10.8–9);²³⁸ abnormal (pratiloma) presentations should be corrected (10.10); the treatment of protracted labour (garbhasanga) (10.11); the care for the newborn, the cutting of the umbilical cord, the rituals (jātakarman) to be performed (10.12-13);²³⁹ the production of breastmilk, which begins on the third or fourth day after parturition (10.14); the diet of the newborn during the first three or four days, before the beginning of breast-feeding (10.15); the care to be provided in the puerperium (10.16–18); ²⁴⁰ disorders during the puerperium (10.19– 20); ²⁴¹ the management of a retained placenta (10.21); ²⁴² the aetiology, symptomatology and treatment of makkalla²⁴³ (10.22); ²⁴⁴ protective measures for a newborn child (10.23);²⁴⁵ the naming ceremony (10.24);²⁴⁶ the selection of an appropriate wet-nurse (dhātrī)²⁴⁷ and the ritual to be performed, accompanied by mantras, on her first feeding of the child (10.25-27); unsuitable kinds of breastmilk and the ensuing disorders (10.28-29); insufficient milk secretion, its causes and treatment (10.30); the characteristics of pure breastmilk; ²⁴⁸ circumstances making the breastmilk unsuitable to the infant; cases in which an infant should not be breastfed (10.31); causes of corruption of the milk of a wet-nurse and its bad effects on the infant (10.32-33); signs enabling a physician to diagnose diseases in children (10.34–36); medicines suitable to a breastfed child (10.37); dosages to be administered to children in various periods of the first year(s) of life, dependent on their diet (10.38); medicines for breastfed children should be applied to the breasts of the one who nurses it (10.39); treatments not fit for breastfed children (10.40-41); the treatment of a children's disease in which the brain tissue (mastulunga)²⁴⁹ shrinks (ksaya) and vata bends down the palatal bone (talvasthi)²⁵⁰ (10.42-43ab); the treatment of inflammation of the navel, called tundi (10.43cd-44ab); the treatment of inflarmmation of the anal region (gudapāka) (10.44c-f);²⁵¹ medicated ghees that can be prescribed to children of different ages (10.45); rules for the care of a child (10.46-47); substitutes for breastmilk (10.48); weaning (10.49); the protection of a child against the attacks of malevolent beings (grahopasarga) (10.50); the general symptoms of a child afflicted by a graha; the afflictions by grahas will be described more elaborately in the Uttara(tantra) (10.51); as soon as a child is ready for it, one should start its instruction, in agreement with the varna (social class) to which it belongs (10.52); a boy should be married, when he has attained the age of twenty-five years, to a girl whose age is sixteen years (10.53); 252 the bad effects on the child of conception before the mentioned marriageable ages (10.54-55); features making men and women unfit for procreation (10.56); disorders of pregnancy and their treatment: ²⁵³ imminent abortion, an excess of foetal movements (garbhasphurana), foetal displacement (prasramsana), repeated displacement, painful sensations (vedanā), retention of urine (mūtrasanga), ānāha (retention of faeces accompanied by abdominal distension), excessive loss of blood, pain not accompanied by bleeding, miscarriage, pains in bladder and abdomen, resorption (laya) of the foetus, prolongation of pregnancy beyond the proper time, drying up of the foetus (śuṣkagarbha), and nāgodara²⁵⁴ (foetal death, followed by withering) (10.57); the treatment of imminent miscarriage (garbhasrāva) in the first to seventh months of pregnancy (10.58–62) and in the eighth to tenth months (10.63–65); a (second) child, born six years after a first one, has a short span of life (10.66); special rules for the treatment of diseases in pregnant women (10.67); four electuaries (prāśa) which promote the bodily and mental development of a child (10.68–70).

Chapter 4 Cikitsāsthāna

Chapter one (dvivranīya) is devoted to the management of the two kinds of sores (vrana).

The subjects dealt with are: the two kinds of sores: endogenous (śārīra) and exogenous (agantu); 2 endogenous sores are caused by vata, pitta, kapha, blood, and combinations of these; exogenous sores are due to traumata (abhighāta) of various kinds³ (1.3); exogenous sores should, first of all, be treated with cooling measures (śītakriyā) of the same kind as in pitta disorders, in order to pacify the heat (ūsman) spreading from the site of the lesion (ksata), and, in addition, honey and ghee should be applied in order to promote union (of the edges); the necessity of these first measures justifies the distinction of two kinds of sores; in a later stage, 4 (exogenous sores) can be treated in the same way as endogenous ones (1.4);5 there are fifteen varieties of sores, as discussed already in the vranaprasna chapter; 6 some add the clean sore as the sixteenth variety (1.5); the symptoms of sores are of two kinds: common (sāmānya) and specific (vaiśesika); the symptom common to all of them is the presence of pain (ruj); the term vrana refers to the loss of intactness (vicūrnana)⁷ of the body and the process through which a sore is produced; specific symptoms are those caused by the dosas (1.6); the symptoms of sores caused by vata, pitta, kapha, blood, and the various combinations of these factors (1.7);8 the sixty therapeutic procedures (upakrama) for the management of sores: 9 apatarpana (reduction of food intake), ālepa (the application of pastes), pariseka (sprinkling with medicated fluids), abhyanga (anointing), sveda (sudation), vimlāpana (gentle massage), upanāha (the application of poultices), pācana (suppuration-promoting measures), 10 visrāvana (bloodletting), sneha (the internal use of fatty substances), vamana (the administration of emetics), virecana (purgation), chedana (excision), bhedana (incision), dārana (the application of medicines which make a swelling burst), lekhana (scarification), esana (probing), āharana (extraction), visrāvana (by means of) vyadhana (drainage by means of puncturing), 11 sīvana (suturing), samdhāna (approximation of wound edges), pīdana (the application of medicinal pastes which help to squeeze out accumulated pus), ¹² sonitasthāpana (the application of styptics), nirvāpana (cooling measures), utkārikā (the application of the warming poultices called utkārikā), kasāya (the application of decoctions), varti (the use of wicks), kalka (the use of pastes), sarpis (the use of medicated ghees), taila (the use of medicated oils), rasakrivā (the use of inspissated extracts), avacūrnana (the application of dusting powders), vranadhūpana (fumigation), utsādana (the promotion of granulation, thus raising the bed of the sore), avasādana (measures removing an excess of granulation tissue, thus depressing the bed

of the sore), mrdukarman (softening), 13 dārunakarman (making soft tissues firmer), 14 ksārakarman (the application of caustics), agnikarınan (cauterization), krsnakarman (inducing a darker colour), pāndukarman (making the new skin assume a lighter colour), pratisārana (rubbing), romasanijanana (promotion of the growth of hair), 15 lomāpaharana (depilatory measures), 16 bastikarman (the application of enemas), uttarabastikarman (the application of uttarabastis), bandha (bandaging), pattradāna (the application of leaves on the surface of a sore), ¹⁷ krmighna (the application of drugs which kill animals called krmi, e.g., the larvae of insects), brinhana (restorative measures), visaghna (drugs useful against poisons), sirovirecana (evacuation of the head), nasya (errhines), kavaladhārana (gargles and mouth washes), dhūma (medicinal smoking), madhu (the internal use of honey), sarpis (the internal use of ghee), yantra (instruments), āhāra (dietary measures), and raksāvidhāna (protective measures) (1.8); kasāyas (decoctions), vartis (wicks), kalkas (pastes), ghees, oils, rasakriyās (inspissated extracts), and avacūrņas (dusting powders) serve to purify (śodhana) a sore and to promote its healing (ropana); eight (out of the sixty procedures) are surgical interventions; 18 sonitasthāpana, ksārakarman, agnikarman, instruments (yantra), dietary rules (āhāra), protective measures (raksāvidhāna), and the application of bandages (bandhavidhāna) have already been described; 19 sneha (oleation), svedana (sudation), vamana (emetics), virecana (purgatives), basti (enemas), uttarabastis, sirovirecana (evacuation of the head), nasya (errhines), dhūma (medicinal smoking), and kavaladhārana (gargles and mouth washes) are subjects that will be described elsewhere (in this treatise); the remaining procedures will be dealt with in this (chapter) (1.9); the eleven procedures which begin with apatarpana and end with virecana 20 are particularly useful in counteracting swelling (sotha), described earlier as a disorder of six types; 21 these same procedures are not contra-indicated when a swelling has developed into a sore (vrana); the remaining (forty-nine) procedures are efficacious when sores are present (1.10); particulars regarding each of the procedures mentioned, their indications, ingredients of preparations employed, etc. (1.11–133); a recapitulatory verse characterizes sores as having six roots (mūla), 22 eight sites (astaparigrāhin), ²³ and five groups of symptoms; ²⁴ they are treated by means of the sixty procedures; their cure depends on four factors²⁵ (1.134); the addition of ingredients, similar to those mentioned in a rather simple formula, is not prohibited; rare drugs mentioned in a compound formula may be omitted, and those unavailable replaced by substitutes; if a drug belonging to a particular group should prove to be harmful in a particular case, one should leave it out and take a more suitable one (1.135-137); the local complications of sores are five in number: smell, etc.; the general complications are fever, diarrhoea, fainting (mūrchā), hiccup, vomiting, aversion to food (arocaka), respiratory problems, cough, digestive disorders (avipāka), and thirst (1.138-139); ²⁶ the discussion of the treatment of sores will be continued in the chapter on sadvovrana²⁷ (1.140).

Chapter two is devoted to recent traumatic wounds and sores (sadyovraṇa) and their treatment. 28

The subjects dealt with are: the various shapes (ākrti) of sores in various parts

of the body, caused by weapons with diverse edges (dhārā) and tips (mukha); sores caused by the dosas may assume the same shapes when bursting spontaneously (2.4-8ab); the six main types of traumatic wounds: chinna (cut), bhinna (stabbed), viddha (pierced), ksata (contused), piccita (crushed), and ghrsta (abrased) (2.8cd-10ab); ²⁹ the characteristics of the chinna and bhinna types (2.10cd-12ab); the organs collectively called kostha: āmāśaya, agnyāśaya, pakyāśaya, mūtrāśaya (urinary bladder), rudhirāśraya (the receptacle of blood), hrd (heart), unduka, and phupphusa (2.12cd-13ab); the general symptoms of the bhinna type when the kostha is affected (2.13cd-16ab); the symptoms of bleeding into the āmāśaya (2.16cd-17ab) and pakvāśaya (2.17cd-18ab);³⁰ the intestines become filled with blood even when (the walls of) the receptacles have remained intact (abhinna), for blood oozes through the subtle pores (kha), in the same way as water oozes through the pores of a closed pitcher (dipped in water) (2.18cd-19ab); the characteristics of the viddha, ksata, piccita and ghrsta types (2.19cd-23ab); the general treatment of the six types of sadyovrana (2.23cd-29ab); the treatment of chinna wounds of the head and the lateral parts of the chest³¹ (2.29cd-30); a severed ear should be repaired in the way described (2.31); 32 the treatment of a chinna wound in the region of the krkātikā (2.32-33); the treatment of chinna wounds of the extremities (2.34-35), back, and anterior part of the chest (2.36); the treatment of patients with a whole arm or leg torn off (2.37); recipes promoting wound healing (2.38-41ab); the treatment of bhinna injuries to the eves (2,42-45ab); the treatment of bhinna injuries to the abdomen that result in the extrusion of lumps (varti) of fatty tissue (medas) (2.45cd-49); a foreign body (śalya) that has penetrated into the kostha and got stuck there gives rise to the complications already described³³ (2.50); characteristics of incurable patients (2.51); the treatment of bleeding into the āmāśaya and pakvāśaya (2.52-54); signs indicating that a patient with a bhinna type of injury to his kostha will survive (2.55); the replacement of extruded intestines which have remained intact (abhinna);³⁴ the repair of torn intestines, before replacing them, by joining the torn parts by means of the bites of ants³⁵ (2.56-60ab);³⁶ enlargement of the wound if replacement would be too difficult otherwise; suturing of the abdominal wall (2.60cd-62ab); after-treatment (2.62cd-66ab); the treatment of extruded testicles (2.66cd-69ab); injuries to the skull; ³⁷ the insertion of a plug (varti), made of hair, is necessary, after the removal of a foreign body, in order to prevent the discharge of brain tissue (mastulunga) (2.69cd-71ab); a plug soaked in oil (snehavarti) should be inserted after the removal of a foreign body from any other part of the body (2.71cd-72ab); deep wounds with small openings should be filled with cakrataila by means of a thin tube, 38 after removal of all the blood (2.72cd-73ab); 39 medicated oils which promote wound healing (2.73cd-76ab); the treatment of the ksata, piccita and ghrsta types of sadyovrana (2.76cd-77ab); the treatment of patients with multiple injuries due to a fall or other causes; these patients should be placed in a tub (dronī) filled with oil (2.77cd-78); the external and internal use of oils and ghee in the treatment of patients with recent wounds (sadyovrana) (2.79-81); the recipe of a wound-healing oil (2.82-85ab); some rules for the treatment of recent wounds in general (2.85cd-86ab); the treatment of corrupted wounds (dustavrana) (2.86cd-92); the treatment of wounds corrupted by vata, pitta, or kapha (2,93-94ab); the rules

for the treatment of corrupted wounds also apply to the sores occurring in meha and kustha (2.94cd); the defense of the distinction of six types of sadyovrana, and the rejection of the views of those admitting a larger number (2.95–97).

Chapter three is devoted to the treatment of fractures and dislocations (bhagna). 40

The subjects are: general features making fractures and dislocations hard to cure (3.3);⁴¹ dietary and behavioural rules for patients with a fracture or dislocation (3.4); recommendations regarding diet (3.5); trees possessing a bark suitable for the making of splints (kuśā) (3.6); ⁴² local applications in the form of plasters (ālepana) (3.7); rules for changing the bandage and for its proper degree of tightness (3.8-10); rules for local irrigations (pariseka) (3.11–13ab); a recipe for internal use (3.13cd–14ab); the treatment of a compound fracture (3.14cd-15ab); the dependence of the healing of a fracture on the age of the patient (3.15cd-17ab); the various ways of reducing fractures and dislocations (3.17cd-19); the utpista and viślista types of dislocation should not be reduced, but treated with cold irrigations and plasters (pradeha) (3.20); the technique of splinting (3.21–22ab); the treatment of fractures and dislocations at particular sites: the junction of nail and skin (3.23), the fingers and toes (3.24), the sole of the foot (3.25), lower leg or thigh (3.26), hip joint (\(\tilde{u}\)rvasthi)⁴³ (3.27), pelvis (3.28), ribs (parśuka) (3.29-30), shoulder joint (amsasandhi) (3.31), elbow, knee, ankle and wrist (3.32-33), palm of the hand (3.34-35), clavicle (aksaka) (3.36), upper arm (3.37ab), neck (3.37cd-39ab), jaw (3.39cd-40), teeth (3.41-43ab), ⁴⁴ nose (3.43cd-44), (pinna of the) ear (3.45), and skull (3.46); the treatment of sprains (3.47); the immobilization of a patient on a fracture-bed (kapātaśayana) 45 and the indications for this type of treatment (3.48-51); the treatment of a malunited fracture by refracturing and setting it in the right position (3.52); debridement of a compound fracture by trimming the projecting part of the bone (3.53); general measures for fractures of the upper part of the body (3.54); ⁴⁶ the preparation of gandhataila and its indications (3.55–66); another useful medicated oil (3.67-68); the prevention of infection and suppuration (pāka) (3.69); the signs of successful healing (3.70).

Chapter four is devoted to the treatment of vata diseases. 47

The subjects are: the treatment of vāta located in the āmāśaya by means of the recipe called ṣaḍdharaṇa (4.3-4);⁴⁸ the treatment of vāta located in the pakvāśaya (4.5), bladder, ears, etc. (4.6), skin, musculartissue, blood and sirās (4.7), snāyus, junctures and bones (4.8); the treatment of vāta, confined within a bone, by perforating the bone by means of a hand drill (pāṇimantha),⁴⁹ and sucking vāta out through a tube (4.9); the treatment of vāta lodged in the semen (4.10ab); the general treatment of vāta affecting the whole body or one of its limbs (4.10cd-11); combinations of vāta with kapha, pitta and blood should be treated by means of procedures which are contradictory (in pacifying one, but exciting another doṣa) (4.12ab); the treatment of suptivāta (local numbness)⁵⁰ (4.12cd-13ab); dietary items beneficial in vāta diseases (4.10cd-14ab); the preparation of the type of poultice called sālvaṇa; ⁵¹ the ways of applying it; special rules when contractures are present (4.14cd-18ab); ⁵² emetics and errhines in vāta diseases (4.18cd-19ab); śirobasti and bloodletting as useful measures when vāta

has affected the head (4.19cd–20ab); the usefulness of enemas in all kinds of vāta diseases (4.20cd-21ab); a long series of general measures to be employed in the treatment of vāta diseases (4.21cd–26); the preparation of tilvaka-, aśoka- and ramyakaghṛta (4. 27); ⁵³ the preparation of anutaila (4.28); ⁵⁴ the preparation of sahasrapāka and śatapāka medicated oils (4.29); ⁵⁵ the preparation of pattralavaṇa (4.30), sneha- or kāṇ�alavaṇa (4.31), and kalyāṇakalavaṇa (4.32–33).

Chapter five is devoted to the treatment of serious vāta diseases (mahāvātavyādhi).

Its subjects are: vātašonita as a single disease, by some authorities incorrectly described as of two kinds, called uttāna (superficial) and avagādha (deep); this distinction is to be rejected, because vatasonita, in the same way as kustha, begins by affecting the superficial constituents of the body and gradually invades the deeper ones (5. 3);⁵⁶ the aetiology, pathogenesis, chief symptoms, and prodromes of vātarakta (= vātasonita); ⁵⁷ if neglected, the disease progresses and leads to disability (vaikalya) (5.4); persons predisposed to the disease (5.5); patients to be accepted for treatment and complications to be regarded as contra-indications (5.6); 58 the treatment of vatarakta with a predominance of vāta (5.7), pitta (5.8), blood (5.9), kapha (5.10), and a combination of dosas (5.11); ⁵⁹ the general treatment of vatarakta (5.12); ⁶⁰ prescriptions against the pains occurring in vatarakta (5.13); 61 the mentioned treatments may easily cure vatarakta of recent origin and be alleviating in chronic cases (5.14); things beneficial (5. 15-16) and harmful (5.17) to patients with vatarakta; conditions making the disease called apatānaka amenable to treatment; the treatment of apatānaka (5.18);62 conditions making a patient with paksāghāta 63 acceptable for treatment; the description of the treatment procedures, ⁶⁴ to be continued for a period of three to four months (5.19); manyāstambha⁶⁵ should be treated in the same way as paksāghāta; errhines which remove vāta and kapha, and dry methods of sudation (rūksasveda), are particularly useful (5.20); the treatment of apatantraka (5.21)⁶⁶ and ardita (5.22); ⁶⁷ vāta diseases in which phlebotomy is indicated (5.23); the treatment of karnasūla (otalgia) (5.24); ⁶⁸ tūnī⁶⁹ and pratūnī 70 (5.25), ādhmāna 71 and pratyādhmāna 72 (5.26), asthīlā 73 and pratyasthīlā 74 should be treated in the same way as gulma and internal abscesses (5.27); the preparation of hingvādicūrna and its indications (5.28); 75 a disease caused by vāta singly, by vāta in combination with one or more dosas, or by vāta covered (āvrta) by one of the dhātus, should be recognized by means of its signs and their due consideration (ūhā) (5.29); ⁷⁶ a painful, firm swelling, cold to the touch, is caused by a combination of vata and medas (fatty tissue); it should be treated like a local swelling (sotha) (5.30); 77 the disease called ūrustambha or ādhyavāta, 78 which arises when vāta, covered by kapha and medas, becomes lodged in the thighs; the symptoms of this disease (5.31-33ab); its treatment (5.33cd-39); 79 the properties, actions, uses, and indications of guggulu (5.40-45).80

Chapter six is devoted to the treatment of haemorrhoids (arśānisi).81

The subjects dealt with are: the four methods of treatment for haemorrhoids: treatment with medicines, treatment with caustics (kṣāra), cauterization (agni), and surgical measures (śastra); 82 types of haemorrhoids suitable to these treatments (6.3); the treat-

ment with a caustic (6.4); haemorrhoids caused by vāta and kapha should be treated with cautery and caustics, those by pitta and blood with mild caustics only (6.5); the signs of adequate, excessive and inadequate cauterization (6.6); the treatment of some particular types of haemorrhoids and some complications (6.7); a caustic should be applied by means of a ladle (darvī), brush (kūrcaka), or rod (śalākā); when a prolapse of the rectum is present, a caustic may be applied without using any instrument; dietary rules for patients with haemorrhoids (6.8); post-operative measures (6.9); disorders arising from the improper use of caustics, cautery, or surgery (6.10); ⁸³ the description of the rectal speculum (6.11); ⁸⁴ pastes (ālepa, piṣṭa) which may make haemorrhoids disappear (6.12); a series of recipes for the treatment of haemorrhoids which are not visible (from outside) (6.13–15); ⁸⁵ general rules for the medicinal treatment, dependent on the doṣa(s) involved (6.16); the treatment of haemorrhoids with bhallātaka preparations (6.17–18); ⁸⁶ vṛkṣaka (= kuṭaja) and aruṣkara (= bhallātaka) are the best medicines against haemorrhoids (6.19); caustics and cautery cure visible haemorrhoids (6.20); things to be avoided by patients suffering from haemorrhoids (6.21–22).

Chapter seven is devoted to the treatment of asmarī (urinary calculi).87

Its subjects are: asmarī as a serious disease, resembling death itself; it is amenable to medicinal treatment in the early stages, but in an advanced stage surgical intervention is necessary (7.3); treatment in the stage when prodromes only are present (7. 4); the medicinal treatment of calculi caused by vata (7.5-9ab), pitta (7.9cd-13), and kapha (7.14-16); the treatment of śarkarā (gravel) (7.17-19ab); more recipes against calculi and gravel (7.19cd-26); conditions making surgical treatment inevitable (7.27-29); 88 pre-operative measures, the positioning of the patient, the manipulation of the calculus before its removal (7.30); signs presenting themselves during the preparatory stage which indicate that it is better to abstain from carrying out the operation (7.31-32); the lithotomic operation (7.33-34); 89 post-operative management; the treatment of sukrāsmarī or gravel that has got stuck in the urethra (7.35); organs that should not be in jured during lithotomy; complications arising from in jury to these organs (7.36); the eight marmans to be avoided by a surgeon performing lithotomy: the sevanī (the raphe of the perineum), the semen-expelling (sukrahara) channels, the channels belonging to the testicles, the ano-rectal region, the mutrapraseka, 90 the urinary passage (mūtravaha), the female genitals (yoni), and the bladder⁹¹ (7.37–38).

Chapter eight is devoted to the treatment of bhagandara (ano-rectal fistulas).92

Its subjects are: the sambūkavarta type and the one caused by a foreign body (salya) are incurable; the remaining ones are curable with difficulty (8.3); ⁹³ a bhagandarapidakā should, when not suppurating, be treated by means of the eleven procedures beginning with apatarpaṇa and ending with virecana; ⁹⁴ suppuration makes surgical treatment necessary; the surgical intervention: excision of the fistular track; alternative treatments: cauterization or the application of caustics (8.4); particulars with regard to the surgical interventions in a fistula of the sataponaka type (8.5–9ab); the shapes of the incisions to be made in fistulas with many openings (i.e., the sataponaka type): lāngalaka, ⁹⁵ ardhalāngalaka, ⁹⁶ sarvatobhadraka, ⁹⁷ and gotīrthaka ⁹⁸

(8.9cd-10); passages with a discharge (srāvamārga) should be cauterized (8.11); after-treatment by means of sudation (sveda) (8.12-16ab); medicines to be taken after sudation (8.16cd-17ab); fluids for irrigation of the wound(s) and the anal region (8.17cd-19); particulars with regard to the treatment of the ustragrīva (8.20-23ab) and the parisrāvin types of bhagandara (8.23cd-25); the shapes of the incisions to be made when the fistula is of the parisravin type; the subsequent measures (8.26-28ab); the treatment of fistulas in children (8.28cd-29); a recipe for local application (8.30-31ab); particulars with regard to the treatment of the exogenous (= unmargin) type (8.31cd-33ab); complete recovery should not be expected in the exogenous type; the type caused by all three dosas should not be accepted for treatment (8.33cd-34ab); local application of anutaila⁹⁹ is beneficial for relieving the pain after surgery (8. 34cd-35ab); other measures for relieving the pain; particular types of sudation and a sitz bath (8.35cd-36), poultices with the skins of particular animals or poultices of the sālvaņa type (8.37); a series of recipes for the treatment of fistulas (8.38-52); 100 the adaptation of the rectal speculum (arsovantra) for use in cases of ano-rectal fistula (8.53); things to be avoided for a year after healing of a fistula (8.54).

Chapter nine is devoted to the treatment of kustha. 102

Its subjects are: the aetiology of kustha (9.3); 103 articles of diet, dietary habits and patterns of behaviour which are harmful to patients suffering from kustha (9.4); articles of diet and some medicinal preparations which are beneficial (9.5); 104 the general management of kustha in the prodromal stage and in those stages where the first to the fourth elements of the body are affected; kustha is incurable when the fifth element has become involved (9.6); medicated ghees and oils to be prescribed in kustha with a predominance of vāta, pitta or kapha; tuvaraka 105 or bhallātaka oil may be used in kustha of all types (9.7); the preparation of mahātiktakaghīta 106 and its indications (9.8); the preparation of tiktakaghrta¹⁰⁷ and its indications (9.9); after oleation and sudation of the patient with one of these ghees (i.e., mahātiktaka or tiktaka), the physician should perform phlebotomy and open from one up to five sirās; the raised (utsanna), round patches (mandala) (of kustha) should be scraped or scarified many times; subsequently, a paste should be applied; ¹⁰⁸ seven different pastes are described (9.10-11ab); ¹⁰⁹ recipes for preparations to be applied locally in cases of dadru (9.12-14) and śvitra 110 (9.15-22): 111 various preparations against kilāsa and svitra (9.23-29ab); the preparation, uses and indications of nīlaghṛta (9.29cd-33) 112 and mahānīlaghṛta (9.34-38); 113 some prescriptions against svitra and other disorders (9.39-40); procedures which remove the dosas in cases of kustha, and prevent that the disease becomes incurable; the intervals for repeating these procedures (9.41-43); various prescriptions against kustha (9.44-50); medicinal preparations which are useful in threatening loss of body parts or when living organisms are present in the lesions; in general, the inflamed and ulcerating lesions of kustha should be treated in the same way as dustavrana 114 (9.51-53); the recipes of vajrakataila 115 and mahāva jrakataila, useful against kustha, dustayrana, and some other disorders (9.54-64ab); a useful oil (9.64cd-66ab); some preparations with khadira (9.66cd-67ab); some other preparations (9.67cd-68ab); the usefulness of daily purgation (9.68c-f); further recipes (9.69-71); general recommendations for kustha patients (9.72).

Chapter ten is concerned with the treatment of mahākuṣṭha ¹¹⁶ according to its title, but the introductory verse (10.3) makes clear that medicines will be described which may be employed in serious (dāruṇa) cases ofkuṣṭha, meha, kapha diseases, and generalized swelling (sarvāngaśopha), as well as in obese persons wanting to reduce their weight.

The subjects discussed are: the preparation of some manthas (10.4); ¹¹⁷ the dietary regimen to be observed during the treatment with these manthas (10.5); the preparation of a number of ariṣṭas (10.6), ¹¹⁸ āṣavas (10.7), ¹¹⁹ surās (10.8), ¹²⁰ avalehas (electuaries) (10.9), and cūrṇas (powders) (10.10); the preparation of an ayaskṛti (an iron-containing compound drug); any metal may be used as the base for this type of drug, which increases the span of life ¹²¹ (10.11); two more iron-containing preparations, called auṣadhāyaskṛti and mahauṣadhāyaskṛti (10.12); the preparation of drugs containing the wood of the khadira tree as the basic material; ¹²² the same procedure may be applied to the heartwood (sāra) of other trees (19.13); preparations with gudūcī (10.14); a medicated ghee (10.15).

The concluding verse (10.16) declares that the description of the preparations mentioned in this chapter will enable an intelligent physician to make countless more varieties of mantha, arista, āsava, etc.

Chapter eleven is devoted to the treatment of prameha (urinary disorders). 123

The subjects dealt with are: the two groups of urinary disorders: congenital (sahaja) and caused by unwholesome things; the congenital group is caused by defects (dosa) of the maternal and paternal seed (bija), the other one by unhealthy dietary habits; patients with a type of prameha belonging to the former group are lean and dry, do not eat much, are usually thirsty, and in particular restless (parisaranasīla); those with a prameha of the latter group are obese, voracious, glossy (snigdha), and inclined to sitting or lying down, and sleeping much (11.3); ¹²⁴ the general management of these two groups of patients (11.4); ¹²⁵ articles of diet to be avoided by patients with prameha (11. 5) or to be recommended to them (11.6); ¹²⁶ purificatory procedures in the preliminary stage of treatment (11.7); 127 five recipes for general use in prameha (11.8); specific prescriptions for each of the ten pramehas due to kapha, the six pramehas due to pitta, and the four pramehas due to vāta (11.9); 128 aristas, āsavas, lehas and ayaskrtis useful in prameha; foods prepared from barley, 129 medicated gruels (yavāgū), and decoctions may also be prescribed (11.10); special prescriptions for wealthy patients and members of a royal family; recommended physical exercises ¹³⁰ for these types of patients in an advanced stage of prameha (11.11); special rules concerning diet and behaviour for patients who are poor and without relatives, those who are affluent (mahādhana), those who are brāhmanas, and those belonging to the other classes (11.12); a poor patient who unrelentingly follows the directions of his physician, may get rid of the disease within a year (11.13).

Chapter twelve is devoted to the treatment of the boils (piḍakā) associated with prameha. 131

Its subjects are: characteristics indicating curability of pramehapidakās (12.3); 132 general rules for the treatment of prameha patients who develop pidakās; the stages of this development and the dangers involved (12.4); the preparation of dhānvantaraghṛta and its indications (12.5); 133 the difficulty of inducing purgation in patients with madhumeha, owing to the abundance of fatty tissue (medas) in their body; strong purificatory measures are therefore required; cases of prameha in which pidakās and other complications are present always show sweetness of the urine, etc., which smells like honey (madhu); for that reason, this disorder is technically known as madhumeha (12. 6); 134 sudation is contra-indicated in this disorder, because of the excess of fatty tissue, which would dissolve and make waste away the whole body (12.7); the weakness of the rasāyanī channels 135 prevents that the dosas reach the upper part of the body in prameha patients; pidakās appear for that reason in the lower half of the body of patients with madhumeha (12.8); non-suppurating (apakva) pidakās should be treated like a local swelling (sopha), suppurating ones like a sore (vrana); various prescriptions which may further healing of the pidakās (12.9); the preparation of an electuary (leha) useful in all types of (pra)meha (12.10); the preparation of navāyasa 136 and its indications (12.11); the preparation of lohārista and its indications (12.12-19); characteristics of the urine indicating that a prameha patient should be regarded as cured (12.20).

Chapter thirteen is devoted to the treatment of madhumeha. 137

Patients who have developed madhumeha and have been given up by (other) physicians may be treated by means of the prescriptions that follow (13.3).

Silājatu is described, called thus because it exudes from rocks (śilā) heated by the sun, and resembles lac (jatu); ¹³⁸ it has six sources (yoni), consisting of the six metals (loha), which can be recognized by their specific odour; the potency (vīrya) and taste of śilājatu correspond to the metal from which it derives; the relative superiority and inferiority of the types of śilājatu depend on these metals, the merits of which increase in the following order: tin, lead, (copper, silver, gold,) iron ¹³⁹ (13.4–8ab). The general properties of śilājatu (13.8cd–9ab) and the best variety (13.9cd–10ab) are described, followed by the way to prepare it for medicinal use, the proper administration of the drug, and the results that may be expected from its regular employment (13.10cd–17ab). ¹⁴⁰

The mineral (dhātu) called mākṣika, found near (the river) Tāpī, and occurring in two varieties, with a golden and a silvery hue respectively, also possesses curative properties of a broad range, and can be employed in the same way as śilājatu (13.17cd–18). Patients using śilājatu or mākṣika should observe particular dietary restrictions (13.19ab).

The next subject is the treatment suitable to patients with kustha who did not benefit from pancakarman, who preserved their trust (in the physician), and who want to live (13.19cd-20ab). ¹⁴¹

The preparation of tuvaraka oil is described (13.20cd-23); the mode of administration of this oil, together with the preparatory measures, the mantra to be recited, ¹⁴² the dietary rules, the after-treatment, etc. (13.24–28); all types of kuṣṭha are cured by this oil within five days (13.29ab). Another preparation with tuvaraka oil, very effective in kuṣṭha and meha, and a powerful rasāyana, is eulogized (13.29cd–34). A collyrium, prepared with tuvaraka pulp (majjan) and other ingredients, cures a number of eye diseases (13.35). 143

Chapter fourteen is devoted to the treatment of udara (abdominal swelling). 144

The subjects dealt with are: prognostic features of the various types of udara: the baddhaguda and parisrāvin types are incurable, while the remaining ones are curable with difficulty; the treatment should always be carried out without holding out hope of complete recovery; the first four (of the eight types of udara) should be treated by means of drugs, the last four require surgical treatment; udara of long standing, of whatever type, is either curable by surgery only or should be given up (14.3); ¹⁴⁵ dietary and behavioural rules for udara patients (14.4); ¹⁴⁶ the management of vatodara (14.5), pittodara (14.6), kaphodara (14.7), and dūsyodara (14.8); an anulomana 147 treatment is useful in all cases of udara (14.9); three purgative recipes 148 for udara in general; their way of administration; the fourth general recipe to be employed for purgative purposes in udara and other diseases is tilvakaghrta ¹⁴⁹ (14.10); the preparation of ānāhavarti, its administration and indications (14.11); a second kind of ānāhavarti (14. 12); the treatment of plihodara (14.13); the preparation of satpalakasarpis, useful in plīhodara and other diseases (14.14); the treatment of yakrddāļyudara is the same as that of plihodara; more specifically, phlebotomy of the right arm is useful (14.15); cauterization of the sirā near the left thumb may bring relief to a patient with plīhodara (14.16); patients with baddhagudodara and parisrāvyudara should undergo oleation, sudation and inunction before being subjected to surgery; subsequently, their abdomen should be opened and the intestines brought out; in a case of baddhagudodara the objects or substances causing intestinal obstruction should be removed, the intestines put back, and the wound sutured; in a case of parisravyudara, one should remove the foreign body, cleanse the intestines, bring the edges of the rupture together, and join them firmly by the bites of black ants; the bodies of these ants can then be removed, but their heads should be left behind; 150 the wound should be sutured, etc., as described already; the post-operative treatment should take place in a sheltered room, where the patient should be made to sit in a dronī full of oil or ghee; he should be kept on a milk diet (14. 17); the treatment of dakodara (ascites): the preparatory stages, the positioning of the patient, the puncturing of the abdomen by means of the instrument called vrīhimukha, the insertion of a canula (nadī), and the draining of the fluid accumulated in the abdominal cavity; this draining should be carried out little by little, with intervals of three, four, five, six, eight, ten, twelve or sixteen days; the wound should be bandaged; the patient should be kept on particular diets for the period of a year after the operation (14.18); boiled milk and broths of the flesh of jangala animals are beneficial in all types of udara (14.19).

Chapter fifteen is devoted to the management of much lagarbha (foetal malpresenta-

The extraction of a śalya consisting of a malpresenting foetus is the most difficult (of all kinds of removal of a śalya), because it has to be carried out manually in the region of the female genitals, liver, spleen, intestines and uterus. All the manipulations have to be performed with one hand only, while avoiding injury to the foetus and the pregnant woman. These manipulations consist of pushing upwards (utkarṣaṇa), pulling downwards (apakarṣaṇa), version (sthānāpavartana), cutting up (utkartana), incision (bhedana), excision (chedana), pressure (pīḍana), straightening (rjūkaraṇa), and tearing apart (dāraṇa). Therefore, after due permission from the king, 152 all these procedures should be carried out with the utmost care (15.3).

Eight types of malpresentation have been described. ¹⁵³ Three types of being stuck (sanga) (in the birth-channel) occur naturally (svabhāvagata): due to a malposition (vaigunya) of the head, shoulder region (anisa), or buttocks (jaghana) (15.4). The physician should do his level best in order to deliver a living child; if he fails in his efforts, the cyāvanamantras ¹⁵⁴ should be recited (15.5–8).

Obstetric manipulations are described which become necessary in case the foetus is dead, ¹⁵⁵ in case of presentation of both legs, one leg, or the buttocks (sphigdeśa), in transverse presentation (tiryagāgata), in a presentation where the head is bent to one side (pārśvāpavṛttaśiras), and in case of presentation of both arms. The two remaining types ¹⁵⁶ are incurable and make surgical intervention inevitable (15.9).

A living foetus should never be cut up by surgical means. If the situation has become unbearable, one should terminate the pregnancy and avoid any loss of time, in order to save the mother's life (15.10–11).

A number of techniques are described, all having in view the extraction of a dead foetus by cutting up those parts which got stuck up; a dead foetus should be removed as soon as possible; the instrument preferably to be used is the mandalagra (15.12–16). ¹⁵⁷

Measures to deliver a retained placenta (aparā) are described, ¹⁵⁸ followed by the treatment required after its successful removal (15.17–20ab). The regimen during the puerperium and some useful prescriptions for this period are dealt with (15.20cd–28ab). The preparation of balātaila is described, ¹⁵⁹ a drug that cures all vāta disorders; it is to be recommended in the puerperal period, and is effective in a long series of various disorders (15.28cd–39). Another type of balātaila can also be used (15.40–43), as well as medicated oils derived from other plants, to be prepared and employed in the same way as balātaila (15.44–47).

Chapter sixteen is devoted to the treatment of vidradhi (abscesses). 160

Its subjects are: the incurability of vidradhi caused by all the dosas together (16.3ab); ¹⁶¹ the other types should, in the unripe (āma) stage, be treated like a local swelling (śopha) (16.3cd); the treatment of abscesses caused by vāta (16.4–9) and pitta (16.10–16ab); the preparation of karañjādighṛta, useful in corrupted sores (duṣṭavraṇa) and other types of wounds and ulcers (16.16cd–22ab); ¹⁶² the treatment of abscesses caused by kapha (16.22cd–26), blood, and a trauma (16.27); the treatment of internal (ābhyantara) abscesses when still unripe (apakva) (16.28–33); directions for phlebotomy (16.34); the treatment of internal abscesses, when ripe (pakva) and bulging (16.35–39ab); the treatment of abscesses affecting the bone marrow (16.39cd–43). ¹⁶³

Chapter seventeen is devoted to the treatment of visarpa (cellulitis, erysipelas), nāļī (sinuses), and stanaroga (diseases of the breasts). 164

The subjects dealt with are: the first three of the (five) types of visarpa are curable, but those caused by concerted action of the doṣas and by a trauma (kṣata) are incurable (17.3ab); ¹⁶⁵ general directions for the treatment of the curable types (17.3cd); the treatment of the types caused by vāta (17.4–5) and pitta (17.6–9); the preparation of gauryādighṛta, useful in visarpa and nādī caused by pitta, as well as in a series of other disorders (17.10–13); ¹⁶⁶ the treatment of visarpa caused by kapha (17.14–15); procedures useful in all types of visarpa (17.16–17ab); a nādī caused by all the three doṣas together is incurable; the other four types require efforts in curing them (yatna-sādhya) (17.17cd); the treatment of sinuses caused by vāta (17.18–20ab), pitta (17.20cd–22), kapha (17.23–25), and a foreign body (śalya) (17.26–28); the treatment of a sinus by means of a kṣārasūtra, i.e., a thread impregnated with a caustic substance (17.29–33); ¹⁶⁷ medicated wicks (varti) (17.34–36), powders, etc. (17.37–38), oils (17.39–42ab) in the treatment of sinuses; the treatment of disorders of the breastmilk (17.42cd–45ab); ¹⁶⁸ the treatment of mastitis ¹⁶⁹ and mammary abscesses (17.45cd–47).

Chapter eighteen is devoted to the treatment of granthi, apa $c\bar{\imath}$, arbuda, and galaganda. 170

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of granthi in general (18.3–4); the treatment of granthi caused by vāta (18.5–8ab), pitta (18.8cd–11), and kapha (18.12–14); the treatment of growths called māṇṣakandī (18.15–16); ¹⁷¹ the treatment of granthi due to medas (18.17–20ab); ¹⁷² the medicinal treatment of apacī (18.20cd–23); the surgical treatment of granthi (18.24); the surgical treatment of apacī (18.25–27); aftertreatment subsequent on surgery (18.28–29ab); the treatment of arbuda due to vāta (18.29cd–31), pitta (18.32–34), kapha (18.35–40), and medas (18.41–43ab); ¹⁷³ the treatment of galagaṇḍa due to vāta (18.43cd–47), kapha (18.48–51), and medas (18.52–55). ¹⁷⁴

Chapter nineteen is devoted to the treatment of vrddhi, 175 upadamsa, and ślīpada. 176

The subjects dealt with are: things to be avoided by patients with vrddhi, with the exception of antravrddhi (19.3–4ab); the treatment of vrddhi due to vāta (19.4cd–9ab), pitta (19.9cd–10), blood (19.11–12ab), kapha (19.12cd–14), medas (19.15–18ab), and urine (19.18cd–20ab); the treatment of antravrddhi (19.20cd–22); ¹⁷⁷ cauterization (19.23) and phlebotomy (19.24) in cases of vrddhi; ¹⁷⁸ the general treatment of curable types of upadaṃśa (19.25); elimination of the doṣas in upadaṃśa (19.26–27); the treatment of upadaṃśa due to vāta (19.28–30ab), pitta (19.30cd–33ab), and kapha (19.33cd–35); the surgical treatment of upadaṃśa (19.36–39); recipes for a powder (cūṃa) (19.40–41), decoction (kvātha) (19.42–43), and oil (19.44–45ab); some more creipes (19.45cd–48ab); the treatment of the remaining two types of upadaṃśa, which cannot always be cured (19.48cd–49ab); the treatment of upadaṃśa caused by all three doṣas together (19.49cd–51); the treatment of slīpada due to vāta (19.52–54), pitta (19.55), and kapha (19.56–59); recipes useful in slīpada (19.60–69). ¹⁷⁹

Chapter twenty is devoted to the treatment of the kşudrarogas. 180

Its subjects are: the treatment of ajagallikā (20.3-4), andhālajī, yavaprakhyā, panasī, kacchapī, and pāsānagardabha (20.5-6); the treatment of vivrtā, indravrddhā, gardabhī, jālagardabha, 181 irivellī, gandhanāmnī, kakṣā, and visphotaka; these disorders should be treated in the same way as pittaja visarpa (20.7-8); the treatment of cippa (20.9-10); kunakha should be treated in the same way as cippa; anuśayī should be treated like vidradhi (an abscess) caused by kapha (20.11); the treatment of vidārikā (20.12-16); the treatment of śarkarārbuda, which is like that of arbuda due to medas; kacchū, vicarcikā and pāmā are to be treated like kustha; some beneficial pastes (lepa) and oils (20.17-19ab); the treatment of pādadārī (20.19cd-20), alasa (20.21-23ab), kadara (20.23cd), indralupta (20.24-27ab), arūmsikā (20.27cd-29cd), and dārunaka (20.29ef-30); the treatment of palita will be described later (20.31ab); 182 masūrikā should be treated like kustha or visarpa caused by pitta and kapha (20.31cd-32ab); 183 the treatment of jatumani, masaka and tilakālaka (20.32cd-33ab), nyaccha, vyanga and nīlikā (20.33cd-36), yauvanapidakās 184 (20.37-38ab), padminīkantaka (20.38cd-39), parivrti, 185 avapātikā (20.40-42), and niruddhaprakaśa (20.43-46ab); samniruddhaguda, valmīka and vahnirohinī (= agnirohinī) should be treated without expecting full recovery; agnirohinī should be treated on the same lines as visarpa, samniruddhaguda on the same lines as niruddhaprakaśa (20.46cd-48ab); the treatment of valmīka (20.48cd-55); characteristics of valmīka making it not amenable to treatment (20.56); the treatment of ahipūtanā (20.57-60ab); 186 muskakacchū 187 should be treated like ahipūtana and pāmā (20.60cd); the treatment of gudabhramśa (20.61-63).

Chapter twenty-one is devoted to the treatment of śūkadoṣa. 188

It deals with the following subjects: the treatment of sarṣapī (21.3), aṣṭhīlikā (21.4), grathita (21.5), kumbhīkā (21.6), alajī (21.7), mṛdita (21.8), saṇmūḍhapiḍakā (21.9), avamantha (21.10), puṣkarikā (21.11), sparṣahāni (21.12), uttamā (21.13), and śataponaka (21.14); tvakpāka should be treated like visarpa, śoṇitārbuda (= raktārbuda) like vidradhi due to blood (21.15); some useful recipes in these conditions (21.16–17); arbuda (= māṇisārbuda), māṃsapāka, vidradhi and tilakālaka should properly be treated without giving hope of full recovery (21.18).

Chapter twenty-two is devoted to the treatment of diseases of the mouth, oral cavity and throat (mukharoga). 189

It deals with the following subjects: the treatment of curable diseases of the lips: osthakopa due to vāta (22.3–5), pitta, blood, a trauma (22.6), kapha (22.7–8), or medas (22.9); the treatment of the diseases of the roots of the teeth and the gums: ¹⁹⁰ sītāda (22.11–12), ¹⁹¹ dantapuppuṭaka (22.13–14ab), ¹⁹² dantaveṣṭa (22.14cd–16ab), ¹⁹³ sauṣira (22.16cd–18ab), ¹⁹⁴ paridara (22.18cd), upakuśa (22.19–21), ¹⁹⁵ dantavaidarbha (22.22), ¹⁹⁶ adhikadanta (22.23), ¹⁹⁷ adhimāṃsa (22.24–25), ¹⁹⁸ and dantanāḍī (dental sinuses) (22.26–33ab); ¹⁹⁹ the extraction of teeth ²⁶⁶ from the lower jaw (22.27); the extraction of teeth from the upper jaw (22.29cd–31ab); ²⁰¹ the treatment of curable diseases of the teeth: dantaharṣa (22.34–36ab), ²⁰² dantaśarkarā (22.36cd–37), ²⁰³ kapā-

likā (22,38ab),²⁰⁴ krmidantaka²⁰⁵ (22,38cd-4lab),²⁰⁶ and hanumoksa; hanumoksa requires the same measures as ardita (22.41cd);²⁰⁷ dietary rules for patients with dental diseases (22.42); the treatment of curable diseases of the tongue: kantaka due to vāta (22.44), pitta (22.45), and kapha (22.46-47), upajihvā (22.48); the treatment of diseases of the palate, beginning with galasundikā (22.49cd-56); tundikerī, adhrusa, kūrma,²⁰⁸ mārnsasamghāta and tālupupputa are to be treated like galasundikā, in particular with the surgical measures described with regard to that disease (22.57); the treatment of tālupāka and tāluśosa (22.58); the treatment of diseases of the throat: rohinī in general, rohinī due to vāta, pitta, kapha (22.59cd-64ab), kanthaśālūka (22.64cd-65ab), adhijihvikā, to be treated in the same way as upajihvikā (22.65cd). ekavrnda (22.66ab), gilāyu (22.66cd), and galavidradhi (22.67ab); the treatment of sarvasara caused by vāta (22.67cd-68); a recipe for a dhūma (fumigation) useful in sarvasara (22.69-71); the treatment of sarvasara caused by pitta (22.72) and kapha (22.73-75); some prescriptions against sarvasara (22.76); the enumeration of the nineteen incurable mukharogas, which may be treated after giving due warning that full recovery cannot be expected; these diseases are: osthaprakopa (inflammation of the lips) due to māmsa, blood and all the three dosas together; sinuses (gati) of the gums (dantamūla) due to the three dosas, and śausira; the diseases of the teeth called śyāva(dantaka), dālana and bhañ jana; the tongue disease called alasa; the disease of the palate called arbuda; the throat diseases called svaraghna, valaya, vrnda, vidārī, alasa, galaugha, māmsatāna, śataghnī, and rohinī (22.77-81).

Chapter twenty-three is devoted to the treatment of swellings (sopha). 209

It deals with the following subjects: the local (avayavasamuttha) swellings, which are of six types, have already been described, together with their symptoms and treatment;210 generalized (sarvasara) swelling211 is of five types: caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, concerted action of the dosas, and poisons (23.3); the aetiology of this disorder (23.4); the symptoms and characteristic features of śvayathu (= śopha) due to vata, pitta, kapha, and concerted action; the poisonous substances causing the fifth type, its symptoms and characteristic features (23.5); dosas staying in the āmāśaya give rise to swelling of the upper part of the body, those staying in the pakvāśaya of the middle part, those staying in the faecal receptacle (varcahsthana) of the lower part; a generalized (sarvasara) swelling arises when the dosas have pervaded the whole body (23.6-7ab); swelling of the middle part and of the whole body is curable with difficulty; swelling of one half of the body and swelling which spreads upwards indicate that death is approaching (aristabhūta); other symptoms pointing to a fatal outcome (23.7cd-9ab); articles of diet to be avoided by a patient with swelling (23.10); the treatment of swelling due to vata, pitta, kapha, and concerted action; swelling caused by poisonous substances will be dealt with in the Kalpasthāna (23.11); the general treatment of swelling (23.12); rules concerning diet and behaviour which are beneficial in cases of swelling (23.13).

Chapter twenty-four, called an āgatābādhāpratiṣedha, is concerned with the prevention of diseases. $^{212}\,$

The chapter begins with rules for the daily regimen (24.3). Subjects dealt with are: rules for cleansing the teeth (dantapavana) (24.4-l0ab);²¹³ contra-indications for cleansing the teeth (24.10cd-12); the tongue-scraper (jihvānirlekhana) (24.13);²¹⁴ the beneficial effects of using a gargle (gandūsa) (24.14);²¹⁵ the beneficial effects of washing (prakṣālana) face and eyes (24.15-17); the beneficial effects of the daily use of a collyrium (añjana), in particular sroto'ñ jana, produced in the Sindhu (region) (24.18–19);²¹⁶ contra-indications for the use of a collyrium (24.20); the beneficial effects of chewing betel leaves (24.21-23);²¹⁷ contra-indications for the use of betel leaves (24.24); anointing (abhyanga) of the head (24.25-26); ²¹⁸ a recipe for an oil to be employed in anointing the head (24.27-28); combing the hair (keśaprasādhanī) (24.29ab); pouring oil into the ears (karnapūrana) (24.29cd);²¹⁹ anointing (abhyariga) of the whole body (with oil) (24.30);²²⁰ affusion of water upon the body (seka)²²¹ (24.31–34); contra-indications for anointing the body (24.35–37); the beneficial effects of physical exercise (24.38-47ab);²²² complications due to excessive physical exercise (24.49cd-50ab); ²²³ contra-indications for physical exercise (24.50cd-51ab);²²⁴ the beneficial affects of udvartana (24.51cd-52ab), udgharsana and utsādana (24.52cd-56);²²⁵ bathing (snāna) (24.57-61);²²⁶ contra-indications for bathing (24.62); inunction (anulepana) (24.63–64ab); the beneficial effects of wearing flowers, (clean) clothes, and gems (24.64cd-65ab); 227 anointing of the face (mukhālepa) (24.65cd-66ab); the application of a collyrium (añjana) (24.66cd-67ab); ²²⁸ the beneficial effects of paying homage to gods, guests, and brāhmanas (24.67cd-68ab); the importance of food (24.68cd-69ab); washing of the feet (pādapraksālana) (24.69cd-70ab);²²⁹ massage of the feet (pādābhyanga) (24.70cd-71ab);²³⁰ the use of footwear (pādatradhārana) (24.71cd-73ab); ²³¹ haircutting, nail-paring, shaving (keśanakharomāpamārjana);²³² the wearing of armour (bānavāra) (24.73cd-74); the beneficial effects of wearing a head covering (usnīsa)²³³ (24.75ab), using an umbrella or parasol (chattra) (24.75cd-76ab),²³⁴ and a stick (danda) (24.76cd-78ab);²³⁵ the importance of sitting comfortably (āsyā), the habit of regular walking (adhvan, cankramana) (24.78cd-80), sleeping comfortably (24.81), and using a fan (vyajana) (24.82); gentle massage (samvāhana) (24.83); the effects of various winds (24.84–85). the heat of the sun (24.86), and the heat of a fire (24.87); the importance of sleeping at an appropriate time (24.88); various rules of conduct (24.89–101);²³⁶ some rules concerning seasonal regimen (24.102-109); the importance of not diverting one's attention when answering nature's calls, etc. (24.110); rules concerning sexual intercourse (24.111-114ab); undesirable sexual activities (24.114cd-130ab); conditions making sexual intercourse desirable and salutary (24.130cd-132).

Chapter twenty-five is devoted to the treatment of miscellaneous disorders (miśraka). It deals with the following subjects: the diseases of the earlobes (pālyāmaya) may, as already stated, be treated by means of bloodletting; these diseases, five in number, are: paripoṭa, utpāta, unmantha, dulhkhavardhana, and parilehin (25.3–4ab); the causes of these diseases and their characteristics (25.4cd–11); the sequelae of neglecting these diseases (25.12); general treatment (25.13); the specific treatment of each of these diseases (25.14–23); the preparation of a medicated oil making the earlobes healthy, soft,

smooth, and capable of bearing ornaments (25.24–28ab); the preparation of nīlītaila, an oil arresting premature greying of the hair (palita)²³⁷ (25.28cd–31); the preparation of sairīyakāditaila, which makes the hair thick, curly and black, which promotes the growth of new hair in cases of baldness (khalati), and prevents the premature onset of the signs of old age, such as wrinkles of the face (25.32–37); the preparation of lā-kṣādighṛta, which cures vyaṅga, nīlikā and visphoṭakas of the face, removes wrinkles, gives beauty to the face, etc.; it should be prescribed to kings and ladies (25.38–42); a recipe for an ointment (lepa) imparting a beautiful complexion (aṅgarāga) (25.43).

Chapter twenty-six is devoted to the treatment with aphrodisiacs (vājīkaraṇacikitsita) of sexually weak (ksīṇabalīva) males.

The subjects dealt with are: persons suitable to be treated with aphrodisiacs (26. 3–5); various means of stimulating sexual desire (26.6–9cd); ²³⁸ types of impaired potency (klaibya): caused by psychological factors (mānasa), decrease of the saumya element(s) (saumyadhātukṣaya), decrease of semen (śukrakṣaya) due to sexual excesses, a disease of the penis or injury to a marman, and congenital (sahaja) factors (26.9ef-14); ²³⁹ the congenital type and that caused by injury to a marman are incurable; the other types can be cured by counteracting the causes (26.15); ²⁴⁰ aphrodisiac recipes (26.16–39). ²⁴¹

Chapter twenty-seven is devoted to measures, belonging to the realm of rasāyana, ²⁴² which settle (śamanīya) all kinds of damage (sarvopaghāta) (to the human system).

The subjects dealt with are: rasāyana measures are always indicated in youthful and adult patients after oleation and purification (i.e., emesis and purgation), but should never be prescribed to those whose body has not previously been purified (27.3-4);²⁴³ articles of diet useful in preserving a youthful appearance (27.5-6); five preparations, with vidanga seeds as their chief ingredient, which, when their daily ingestion is followed by the proper diet, increase the life expectancy (27.7); ²⁴⁴ another preparation with vidariga seeds, which, when taken in the proper way during a period of four months, rejuvenates old people and endows them with superhuman (amānusa) qualities (27.8); substitution of the vidanga seeds by dehusked (niskulīkrta) seeds of kāśmarya gives, with some adjustments of the course of treatment, the same results; these recipes are also applicable in diseases caused by blood and pitta (27.9); preparations having similar rasayana effects and useful in a number of diseases, with as chief ingredients the roots of bala, 245 atibala, 246 nagabala, 247 vidari, or śatavari (27.10); a rasāyana preparation with the rhizomes of vārāhī (27.11); a rasāyana preparation, specifically promoting eyesight, with the pith (sāra) of bījaka and the roots of agnimantha as its main ingredients (27.12); sana fruits boiled in milk and taken with milk are effective in preserving youthful vigour (27.13).

Chapter twenty-eight is devoted to rasāyana measures which improve the mental faculties and impart longevity (medhāyuşkāmīyarasāyana).

Its subjects are: the preparation, instructions for use, and effects of a rasāyana with the seeds of the white avalguja (= bākucī); the roots of citraka or those of haridrā may

also be used, with an adjustment of the maximum dose (28.3); the preparation, etc., of a rasāyana with maṇḍūkaparṇī (28.4),²⁴⁸ brāhmī (28.5–6),²⁴⁹ and vacā (28.7);²⁵⁰ the effects of a ghee, processed one hundred times with vacā (vacāśatapākasarpis) (28.8); a series of rasāyana recipes; their preparation should be accompanied by the recitation of mantras (28.9–26); elements of behaviour which improve one's mental faculties (28. 27) and confer longevity (28.28).²⁵¹

Chapter twenty-nine²⁵² is devoted to rasāyana measures which aim at counteracting naturally occurring diseases (svabhāvavyādhi).²⁵³

Brahmā and the other gods created in the days of yore an amṛta known as soma, which prevents old age and death; the way of using it will now be expounded (29.3). ²⁵⁴

This one and venerable soma is divided into twenty-four varieties according to their habitat, name, form and potency (29.4). Their names are: aṃśumant, muñjavant, candramas, rajataprabha, dūrvāsoma, kanīyas, śvetākṣa, kanakaprabha, pratānavant, tālavṛnta, karavīra, aṃśavant, svayaṃprabha, mahāsoma, garuḍāhṛta, gāyatra, traiṣṭubha, pāṇkta, jāgata, śākvara, agniṣṭoma, raivata, yathokta, and uḍupati; all these auspicious names are mentioned in the Vedas; 255 all the varieties enumerated have the same properties and are used in one and the same way, to be explained next (29.5–9). 256

A very elaborate, long-lasting course of treatment, covering a total of four months, with soma of the amsumant variety, accompanied by many rituals, is described; complete rejuvenation and the acquisition of the eight aisvaryas²⁵⁷ are its result (29.10–13). The wonderful effects of the use of soma are eulogized (29.14–19).²⁵⁸

A soma plant grows one leaf on each of the fifteen days of the moon's increase and loses one leaf on each day of its waning (29.20–22). Some characteristics of the varieties of soma are mentioned. Amsumant smells like ghee, ²⁵⁹ rajataprabha has a tuberous root (kanda) like that of the plantain, ²⁶⁰ muñ javant possesses leaves like those of garlic, ²⁶¹ candramas is of a golden colour and has an aquatic habitat, ²⁶² garuḍāḥṭta ²⁶³ and śvetākṣa²⁶⁴ are pale (pāṇḍura) in colour, look like the cast-off skin of a snake, and are found pendent from the branches of trees; all the other varieties are decorated with variegated rings (29.23–25). All the varieties of soma have fifteen leaves and a tuber with a milky juice, are creeper-like in appearance, and possess leaves of various forms (29.26).

Habitats of soma ²⁶⁵ are the mountains Himavant, Arbuda, Sahya, Mahendra, Malaya, Śrīparvata, Devagiri and Devasaha, (the mountain ranges called) Pāriyātra and Vindhya, and the Devasunda lake. Candramas, the best variety, floats like (the plant called) hatha on the water of the great river Sindhu, where it flows down at the foot of the five large mountains lying to the north of the Vitastā; muñjavant and aṃśumant are found in the same locality; the little Mānasa lake in Kaśmīr²⁶⁶ is the place where gāyatra, traiṣtubha, pānkta, jāgata and śākvara occur, as well as other varieties of soma which glow like the moon (29.27–31).

The soma plants are invisible to those unfortunate persons who have no respect for physicians, who do not observe the dharma, are ungrateful, decry medicines, and dislike brāhmanas (29.32).

Chapter thirty is devoted to rasāyana measures which remove distress (nivṛttasaṃtāpīya rasāyana).

Persons who can secure these (rasāyana) drugs become free from distress and enjoy the same happiness on earth as the gods in heaven (30.3). Seven groups of persons are unfit for this rasāyana treatment: those not self-possessed, lazy, indigent, negligent, vicious, wicked, and disregardful with respect to medicines; success cannot be reached in these persons due to their ignorance, inactivity, poverty, mental instability, intemperance, impiety, and inability to secure the (appropriate) drugs (30.4). ²⁶⁷

The eighteen great drugs (mahauṣadhi) with the same potency as soma are: ajagarī, śvetakāpotī, kṛṣṇakāpotī, gonasī, vārāhī, kanyā, chattrā, aticchattrā, kareṇu, ajā, cakrakā, ādityaparṇī, brahmasuvarcalā, śrāvaṇī, mahāśrāvaṇī, golomī, ajaloinī, and mahāvegavatī;²⁶⁸ their mode of action, the accompanying rituals (āśis),²⁶⁹ and the praise (of their effects),²⁷⁰ compared to those of soma, have been described in the (medical) scientific treatises (śāstra).

The parts of the plants fit for use are mentioned, the quantities of these parts to be taken, the preparation of the drug by boiling the plant parts with milk, the dose to be taken, and the regimen to be followed during the treatment; after completion of the course of treatment, the body should be anointed with butter (navanīta), and not with the substances described in the treatment with soma²⁷¹ (30.5).

The wonderful effects of the treatment are extolled (30.6-8). 272

The morphological characteristics of each of the eighteen great drugs are enumerated (30.9–25), ²⁷³

The first seven of the great drugs, which have the appearance of a snake, should be culled while reciting a particular mantra (30.26–28ab).

Soma and the drugs similar to it cannot be secured by those who are unbelievers, lazy, ungrateful, and wicked (30.28cd–29ab). Brahmā and the other gods placed the remnant of the amṛta, after they had drunk of it, ²⁷⁴ in the drugs with the potency of soma and in soma, the lord of the medicinal herbs (30.29cd–30ab).

The habitats of the great drugs and the proper seasons for their collection: brahmasuvarcalā grows in the waters of lake Devasunda and the river Sindhu; the same applies to ādityaparnī, ajagarī and gonasī; kareņu, kanyā, chattrā, aticchattrā, golomī, ajalomi and mahāśrāvaṇī grow in a divine lake in Kaśmīr, called Ksudrakamānasa (the little Mānasa); kṛṣṇasarpā (= vārāhī) and gonasī are found there too; śvetakāpotī grows on top of termite hills in a region covering three yojanas on the other side of the river Kauśikī²⁷⁵ and to the east of Sañjayantī;²⁷⁶ vegavatī grows on the Malaya mountains and the Nalasetu²⁷⁷ (30.30cd-36ab).

All these drugs should be taken, after a fast, on the full-moon day of the month of Kārttika; the rules concerning diet and behaviour, as well as the effects, are the same as those described for soma (30.36cd-37ab).

All these drugs, soma included, may be collected on the mountain Arbuda; this mountain is poetically described (30.37cd-39).

All (these drugs) should be searched for in auspicious locations, whether they be rivers, mountains, lakes, forests, or hermitages, since the world holds precious substances everywhere (30.40).

Chapter thirty-one is concerned with treatments by means of fatty substances (sneho-payaugikacikitsita). ²⁷⁸

The subjects dealt with are: fatty substances (sneha) are essential constituents of the human organism; the pranas abound in them; this makes the pranas manageable by means of these substances; fatty substances may be administered in drinks, enemas of the anuvāsana type, mastiskas, ²⁷⁹ širobastis, uttarabastis, errhines, eardrops (karnapūrana), massage oils, and articles of diet (31.3); fatty substances can be obtained from two sources ²⁸⁰ and are of four kinds; ²⁸¹ ghee made from cow's milk is the best sneha from an animal source, sesamum oil the best from a vegetable source (31.4); many vegetable oils are mentioned, together with the disorders in which they are useful (31. 5); 282 the description of the way in which, according to some authorities, a medicated sneha should be prepared; the rejection of this method on account of the wrong system of weights and measures applied (31.6); the approved system of weights and measures (31.7); ²⁸³ two methods for preparing a decoction, and, with this decoction as a basic ingredient, a sneha (31.8); some general rules; these methods of snehapāka should be followed when the quantities of sneha, drug and water are not specified; in case these quantities are mentioned, the instructions should be complied with; water should be used when no particular liquid is referred to; when no specific drug is prescribed, one should take the group of drugs (gana) concerned (31.9-10); ²⁸⁴ snehapāka is of three types: mrdu (mild), madhyama (medium), and firm (khara); the characteristics and the uses of these types are described (31.11); ²⁸⁵ the characteristics indicating that the process of preparing a medicated ghee or oil is completed (31.12-13); the way in which a patientshould take a medicated ghee or oil (31.14); ²⁸⁶ indications for a medicated ghee (31.15), ²⁸⁷ oil (31.16), ²⁸⁸ vasā (31.17) and bone marrow, ²⁹⁰ or ghee (31.18); ghee alone, without the addition of any other substance, should be prescribed in diseases caused by pitta, ghee mixed with salt²⁹¹ in vata diseases, ghee mixed with vyosa²⁹² in kapha diseases (31.19); the sixty-three tastes, singly or combined, should be used in snehas, keeping in view the degree of involvement of the dosas and their combinations (31.20); ²⁹³ rules concerning the taking of a sneha by day or at night and in the various seasons (31.21-22);²⁹⁴ disorders resulting from the non-observation of these rules (31. 23); ²⁹⁵ the treatment of thirst after drinking a sneha (31.24–25ab); ²⁹⁶ dosage schedules for a sneha, their effects and indications; these dosages are connected with the time required for their digestion (31.25cd-31ab); ²⁹⁷ the treatment of improper use or an overdosage²⁹⁸ by making a patient vomit the sneha²⁹⁹ (31.31cd-32ab); the repetition of the procedure, if necessary, in such a patient and his after-treatment (31.32cd-35); the duration of the treatment with a sneha; the maximum is a period of six days (31.36);³⁰⁰ indications for taking a sneha together with food (31.37);³⁰¹ methods of snehana which give results in a short time (sadyahsnehana) (31.38–44); indications for sadyahsnehana (31.45); contra-indications for treatment with a sneha (31.46-51 ab); ³⁰² indications for treatment with a sneha (31.51cd-52); 303 signs indicating proper treatment (31.53) 304 and excessive treatment (31.54);³⁰⁵ the management of those inadequately or excessively treated (31.55); the beneficial effects of a sneha in health and disease (31.56-57).

Chapter thirty-two is devoted to treatment by means of sudation (svedāvacāraņ \tilde{i} -yacikitsita). 306

It deals with the following subjects: the four types of sudation: application of direct heat (tāpasveda), 307 direct and indirect heat (ūṣmasveda), 308 poultices (upanāhasveda), and liquids (dravasveda); 309 a description of various types of tapasveda (32.4) and usmasveda (32.5-9);³¹⁰ some more types of ūsmasveda (32.10-11);³¹¹ poultices (32. 12);³¹² dravasveda (32.13);³¹³ tāpa- and ūsmasveda are indicated in kapha diseases, poultices cure vata diseases, dravasveda is useful in combinations of pitta with kapha or vāta (32.14); when vāta is associated with kapha and medas, sudation may be achieved by remaining in a place free from draughts (nivāta), by exposure to the sun, by warm clothes, wrestling (niyuddha), walking, physical exercise, load-carrying, and arousing anger (32.15); 314 the described types of sudation may be applied to the whole body or part of it (32.16);³¹⁵ indications for sudation (32.17-19);³¹⁶ massage with oil (abhyariga) and oleation (sneha) should always precede sudation (32.20);³¹⁷ the mode of action of sudation (32.21); characteristic features of proper, improper and excessive sudation (32.22-24);³¹⁸ contra-indications for sudation (32.25);³¹⁹ mild sudation, including the cardiac region, scrotum and eyes, is advisable in patients with diseases curable by this method, even in the presence of contra-indications (32.26); 320 general rules for sudation (32.27-28ab); ³²¹ rules for after-treatment (32.28cd-29). ³²²

Chapter thirty-three is devoted to the treatment of disorders curable by means of emetics and purgatives (vamanavirecanasādhyopadravacikitsita).

The subjects dealt with are: the dosas should be strengthened when decreased, pacified when excited, eliminated when increased, and protected when in balance (33.3); 323 emesis and purgation are mainly employed for elimination (nirharana) of the dosas (33. 4); the preliminary treatment, prior to emesis, with oleation and sudation, will lead to dislodgment (utkleśa) of dosas which have got stuck (avabaddha) (33.5-6); 324 the procedures to be adopted in emesis (33.7);³²⁵ signs indicating a deficient and excessive administration of emetics (33.8);³²⁶ the signs of proper emesis (33.9);³²⁷ after-treatment (33.10-11); ³²⁸ the beneficial effects of emesis (33.12-13); contra-indications for emesis (33.14-17);³²⁹ indications for emesis (33.18);³³⁰ the preparation of a patient for purgative treatment (33.19-20);³³¹ the three types of kostha (bowel activity): mrdu (soft), krūra (hard) and madhyama (moderate), to be treated with weak, strong and moderate dosages of purgative drugs (33.21); ³³² after-treatment (33.22); the mode of action of purgatives (33.23); signs indicating a deficient and excessive administration (33.24);³³³ the signs of proper purgation (33.25);³³⁴ dietary rules after purgation (33. 26); 335 the beneficial effects of purgation (33.27-28); 336 contra-indications (33.29-31); ³³⁷ indications for purgative treatment (33.32); ³³⁸ specific properties and actions of emetics and purgatives (33.33-34); rules for purgation in various types of patients (33.35-46); dosas in the kostha are dislodged by oleation and sudation and can then easily be eliminated by purificatory measures (33.47).

Chapter thirty-four (vamanavirecanavyāpaccikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of disorders (vyāpad) caused by (the injudicious administration of) emetics and

purgatives.339

The subjects dealt with are: the fifteen disorders caused by (injudiciousness of) physician or patient; passing downwards (adhogati) of emetics and passing upwards (ūrdhvagati) of purgatives are the kinds of vyāpad peculiar to these types of treatment; the remaining fourteen are common to emetic and purgative treatments; these disorders are: retention of part of the administered drug (savasesausadhatva), complete digestion of the drug (iīrnausadhatva), insufficient elimination of the dosa(s) (hīnadosāpahrtatva), piercing pain due to vāta (vātaśūla), underdosage (ayoga), overdosage (atiyoga), jīvādāna (bleeding), tympanitis (ādhmāna), parikartikā, parisrāva, pravāhikā, hrdayopasarana, constipation (vibandha), and angapragraha (34.3); 340 adhogati and its treatment (34.4); 341 ūrdhvagati and its treatment (34.5); 342 sāvašesausadhatva, its symptoms and treatment (34.6);³⁴³ jīrnausadhatva, its symptoms and treatment (34.7);³⁴⁴ hīnadosāpahrtatva after the treatment with emetics and purgatives; the treatment of this untoward condition (34.8); 345 vātašūla, its causes, symptoms and treatment (34.9); 346 ayoga and its treatment (34.10);³⁴⁷ atiyoga of emetics and purgatives, the symptoms and treatment of the disorders resulting from it; 348 jīvādāna 349 (loss of fresh blood by way of the mouth or anus) (34.11–13); the differences between jīvaśonita (fresh blood) and raktapitta (34.14); ³⁵⁰ the causes, symptoms and treatment of tympanitis (34.15), ³⁵¹ parikartikā (34.16), 352 parisrāva (34.17, 353 pravāhikā (34.18), 354 hrdayopasarana (34. 19), 355 and vibandha (34.20); 356 gudaparikartikā (a cutting pain in the anal region) as a disorder caused by purgatives is an equivalent of kanthaksarana³⁵⁷ after inadequate treatment with emetics; parisravana and pravahika after improper application of purgatives are equivalents of an abundant secretion of saliva (ślesmapraseka) and dry eructations (śuskodgāra) after improper emesis.

Chapter thirty-five is concerned with the dimensions (of the component parts) of a clyster and the types of enemas (netrabastipramāṇapravibhāga). Related topics are added.

The subjects dealt with are: the importance of enemas and their general effects (35. 3-4); ³⁵⁸ indications for enema treatment (35.5-6); ³⁵⁹ specifications for the dimensions of the clyster-pipe (netra) and the karnika; 360 the quantity of the drugs for an asthapana enema should be two, four or eight prasrta, dependent on the age of the patient; a prasrta is in this case the quantity equal to what the hollow of the patient's own hand can contain³⁶¹ (35.7); the measurements of pipe and bag vary according to the age of the patient, his strength and his bodily make-up (35.8); specifications for the dimensions of the pipe in patients more than twenty-five years of age; the pipe should possess two karnikās in these cases; the quantity of the drugs should be twelve prasrta; the requirements for patients above seventy years of age are the same, but the quantity of the fluid should be as that for a youth of sixteen (35.9); 362 a mild enema should be used in children and elderly patients, because a strong one would be harmful (35.10): the appropriate length of a vrananetra³⁶³ and the width of its aperture (35.11); suitable materials for the pipe of a clyster, ³⁶⁴ its form, and its opening (35.12); the most suitable material for the clyster bag; the properties it should have (35.13);³⁶⁵ substitutes for the materials for pipe and bag (35.14); ³⁶⁶ requirements for the bag, its preparation,

and the putting together of the complete instrument (35.15-17); the two types of enema: nairūhika (non-oleaginous) and snaihika (oleaginous); āsthāpana and nirūha are synonyms; a mādhutailika enema is a variety of āsthāpana and is also called yāpana, ³⁶⁷ yuktaratha and siddhabasti; 368 the explanation of the terms nirūha and āsthāpana; the mādhutailikabasti will be described in the chapter on nirūha; 369 an anuvāsana enema is a variety of oleaginous enema (snehabasti) with a reduced quantity of fluid; ³⁷⁰ it does no harm when retained within the bowels and may be administered daily; the subvarietv of anuvāsana called mātrābasti³⁷¹ contains one quarter of the fluid used in an anuvāsana enema (35.18); the modes of action of nirūha and snehabasti (35.19-20); contraindications for an anuvāsana enema (35.21-23);³⁷² the effects of properly administered enemas (35.24–31); the six types of defective handling of the clyster pipe (pranidhānadosa); ³⁷³ the eleven defects of the pipe (netradosa); ³⁷⁴ the five defects of the bag; ³⁷⁵ the fourtypes of improper squeezing of the bag (pīdanadosa); ³⁷⁶ the eleven undesirable qualities of the fluid used; the seven inappropriate postures of the patient (śayyādosa); these forty-four defects (vyāpad) are due to the physician; the fifteen defects which are due to the patient will be described in the aturopadravacikitsita chapter;³⁷⁷ the oleaginous vehiculum of an enema may be retained without coming out again due to eight causes: 378 the three dosas are overwhelmed by ingested food, the fluid has got mixed with faecal matter, has been administered too high up into the rectum, has been administered without prior sudation, is too cold, has been administered to a patient who has taken (too) little food, or has been administered in (too) small a quantity; ³⁷⁹ these conditions are the fault of both physician and patient; nine disorders arise due to faults of the practitioner: defective administration of both (anuvāsana and āsthāpana), tympanitis (ādhmāna), parikartikā, parisrāva, pravāhikā, hrdayopasarana, angapragraha, overdosage, and jīvādāna (35.32); thus seventy-six disorders due to defects (vyāpad) have been described; (signs leading to their) knowledge and their cure (siddhi) will be dealt with in the next chapter (35.33).

Chapter thirty-six is devoted to the treatment of disorders due to the improper application of the pipe, etc., in the administration of an enema (netrabastiyvapaccikitsita). 380

The subjects dealt with are: disorders due to defects of the pipe and its inadequate handling; the treatment of these disorders (36.3–10ab);³⁸¹ disorders due to defects of the bag, its improper pressing, and allowing the fluid to remain inside longer than the proper period; the treatment of these disorders (36.10cd–16);³⁸² disorders due to shortcomings of the enema fluid; the treatment of these disorders (36.17–22); disorders caused by a wrong positioning of the patient; their treatment (36.23–30ab); disorders due to the nine defects of the enema itself; the treatment of these disorders (36.30cd–48);³⁸³ these nine defects of a nirūha (non-oleaginous enema) may also occur in a snehabasti (36.49); thus all the disorders caused by improper application (vyāpad) of enemas have been described, along with their treatment; the physician should proceed in such a way that they do not occur (36.50); a patient should be purged for a fortnight after his treatment with emetics; a nirūha should be administered seven days after the purgative treatment; it should be followed that very day by an anuvāsana enema (36.51). ³⁸⁴

Chapter thirty-seven is devoted to the treatment with anuvāsana (an oleaginous enema) and uttarabasti.

The subjects dealt with in the first part are: an anuvāsana may be administered seven days after a treatment with purgatives, when the patient has recovered his strength and his normal diet (37.3); the dosage of a snehabasti (oleaginous enema) is one-fourth (pādāvakrsta) of that for a nirūha (37.4);³⁸⁵ an enema should always be given only after the patient has passed urine, stool and flatus, for it would be obstructed otherwise (37.5); a snehabasti should always be preceded by emesis and purgation (37.6); (ten) recipes for medicated oils which are, as drinks, in an anuvāsana, 386 or as an errhine, active against many diseases (37.7-42); special indications and precautions concerning the treatment with anuvāsana enemas (37,43-57); the correct procedure for the administration of an anuvāsana (37.58-63); 387 the treatment of problems that may arise: the enema fluid is not retained for a sufficiently long time. comes out at once, etc. (37.64-69); courses of treatment with enemas; 388 a course of six, seven, eight, or nine snehabastis may be given, alternating with the administration of a nirūha; the first oleaginous enema lubricates the bladder and the groins, the second subdues vāta located in the head, the third bestows strength and enhances the complexion, the fourth to ninth oleate rasa, blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, bones, and bone marrow in the mentioned order; applied twice in this way, the whole series of eighteen enemas cures disorders of the semen (37.70-74); those taking eighteen times such a course of eighteen enemas, while observing the rules and prohibitions, acquires the strength of an elephant, the speed of a horse, a divine beauty, freedom from sins, an excellent memory, and a life span of thousand years (37.75-76); snehabastis or nirūhas should not be used exclusively, but in alternation, because the snehabastis would destroy the digestive fire and cause utkleśa (due to kapha), while the nirūhas would provoke vāta (37.77-78); 389 a snehabasti may be administered daily to patients with much vata, 390 but to others only every third day, 391 for fear of damage to the digestive fire; small quantities of a snehabasti during a long time are not harmful to dry (rūksa) patients; ³⁹² the same applies to the use of a nirūha in patients who have been oleated (snigdha) (37.79-80); the treatment of the conditions, due to eight causes, in which a snehabasti is retained, does not come out at all, or leaks out slowly (37.81-100ab), 393

The subjects dealt with in the second part, on uttarabasti (urethral and vaginal irrigations), are: the length of the pipe (netra): fourteen angula, to be measured by the patient's own fingers; ³⁹⁴ the shape of its proximal end; the width of its aperture (37.100cd–101); ³⁹⁵ the maximum dose of an oleaginous substance is one prakuñca; ³⁹⁶ the appropriate dose for persons below twenty-five years of age should be determined by the physician (37.102); ³⁹⁷ the place of the karnikā (protrusion) on the pipe for males and females (37.103ab); ³⁹⁸ the lumen should agree with that of the urethra (mūtrasrotas) and it should be ten angula long (37.103cd); ³⁹⁹ some require its length to be the same as that of the penis (37.104ab); ⁴⁰⁰ the extent to which the pipe should be introduced into the vagina (apatyamārga) or urethra (mūtramārga) (37.104cd–105); ⁴⁰¹ the maximum dose (in females) ⁴⁰² is a prasṛta, i.e., the quantity that the hollow of the patient's own hand can contain; ⁴⁰³ smaller doses should be fixed by the physician for

young patients or as the case may require (37.106); suitable materials for the bag and their substitutes (37.107-108ab); 404 the preparation of the patient and his positioning (37.108cd-109);⁴⁰⁵ the mode of administration of an uttarabasti to a male patient; the after-treatment (37.110–113); 406 three or four bastis should be given (37.114ab); the positioning of a female patient; the mode of administration (37.114cd-115); 407 the quantity of the sneha should be doubled for purification of the uterus (37.116ab); the quantity of the decoction (kvātha) to be used should be one prasrta for a male patient, two prasrta for an adult female patient, and one prasrta for an unmarried girl (37.116cd-117ab); when the uttarabasti is retained, the treatment should be repeated. with the addition of purificatory drugs (37.117cd-118ab), or a suppository (varti) should be introduced through the anus, prepared with purificatory drugs, or a probe (esanī) should be introduced through the opening of the bladder (bastidvāra), or the region below the navel should firmly be pressed with the upper part of the closed fist (uttaramusti) (37.118cd-119), or a particular varti, of a size appropriate to the age of the patient, should be introduced 408 by means of a śalākā, thus making the retained fluid come out (37.120-121); another varti may also be successful (37.122);⁴⁰⁹ the measures described for the successful application of anuvasana enemas may be adopted too (37.123ab); prescriptions against a burning sensation in the bladder (37.123cd-124); indications for the application of uttarabasti (37.125-126); the signs of proper application of an uttarabasti, the disorders resulting from an injudicious application, and the treatment of these disorders are the same as those of a snehabasti $(37.127)^{410}$

Chapter thirty-eight is devoted to the treatment with nirūha (a non-oleaginous enema). The subjects dealt with are: an āsthāpana (= nirūha) should be administered to pa-

tients who have already been treated with an anuvasana; the preparation of the patient and his positioning; the preparation of the clyster and its mode of application; 411 the enema should come out again within a muhūrta; a second, third, or fourth enema may be administered, as the case requires; 412 the treatment should be discontinued when the signs of proper application appear (38.3-7ab); a smaller number of enemas may be preferable in delicate persons; an excess should always be avoided (38.7cd-8ab); the signs of inadequate, excessive and proper treatment with a nirūha (38.8cd-11ab); aftertreatment (38.11cd-17ab); the treatment required when the enema does not come out within a muhūrta (38.17cd-18ab); the disorders arising when the enema is retained for a long time (38.18cd-19ab); contra-indications for nirūha treatment (38.19cd-23); 413 substances and drugs suitable for a nirūha (38.24-28); the preparation of the nirūha fluid (38.29-36); the preparation of the dvadaśaprasrta nirūha; the maximum dose of twelve (dvādaśa) prasrta may be reduced according to the age of the patient (38.37-41);⁴¹⁴ recipes for a long series of enemas, their indications and effects (38.42–89);⁴¹⁵ patients with a high degree of sattva should be given a strong (tīksna) enema, those with a moderate or low degree of sattva a moderate or mild enema (38.90); a physician should administer an enema after assessing the period of time, the patient's strength, the dosa(s) involved, the disorder, and the strength of the drugs in the enema fluid (38.91); a physician should give first an enema that makes the dosas move (utkleśana), then one

that eliminates them (doṣahara), and finally one that pacifies (saṇiśamanīya) them (38. 92); recipes for these three kinds of enema (38.93–95); the effects of a mādhutailika enema; persons suitable for treatment with it; the way of its preparation (38.96–101); 416 the recipe of a yuktaratha enema (38.102); 417 the recipe of a doṣahara enema (38.103); the recipe of an enema called pāñcamūlika mādhutailika (38.104); the recipe of a siddhabasti (38.105); 418 the preparation and effects of an enema called the king among the yāpana enemas (38.106–111); 419 general rules concerning the treatment with enemas (38.112–113); explanations of the terms mādhutailika, yuktaratha, and siddhabasti (38.114–116); indications for the treatment with a mādhutailika enema (38.117); the siddhabasti is mild; it should be administered once in a small dose, and may be used without observing all the rules (38.118).

Chapter thirty-nine is concerned with the treatment of side effects (upadrava).

The subjects dealt with are: oleation, emesis, purgation, bloodletting, and the treatment with nirûha enemas may lead to weakness of the digestive fire (kāyāgni); this fire also loses strength by an excess of heavy articles of diet; it is stimulated by light articles of diet in small quantities (39.3-5); the quantity of one's diet should always be adapted to the quantity of eliminated dosas; the measures (used with regard to the eliminated dosas) are a prastha, 420 half an ādhaka, and an ādhaka, 421 which are the smallest, the intermediate, and the largest quantity respectively (39.6-7ab); dietary rules for particular groups of patients after undergoing eliminative treatment (39.7cd-15ab); the rule with respect to the quantity of eliminated dosas, measured as a prastha, half an ādhaka or an adhaka, is rejected by some experts, who hold the opinion that a treatment with purgatives should always end with the passage of mucous discharges (39.15cd-16); a patient's strength (bala) is of three degrees; accordingly, three types of dietary regimen are distinguished; a strong patient should observe the regimen once, one of moderate strength twice, a weak patient thrice; others are of the opinion that this rule regarding regimen applies to patients with a sluggish, moderate or strong digestive fire (39.17-18); the recommended order of the tastes of the articles of food in the meals of patients with an increased digestive fire after observing a particular regimen; the gradual transition to a normal diet (39.19-20); after oleation or emesis, a patient should take light food only for seven days (39.21); things to be avoided during and after elimination therapy (39,22-25); disorders arising from sexual intercourse during treatment (39,26-27); disorders arising from day-sleep (39.28-29), loud speaking, and other excesses (39.30-38); light articles of diet which are beneficial after treatment with emetics and purgatives (39,39).

Chapter forty is devoted to treatment by means of fumigations and smoking (dhūma), errhines (nasya), and gargles (kavalagraha).

The subjects dealt with are: the five types of fumigation and smoking: prāyogika (for regular use in the healthy), snaihika (oleaginous), vairecanika (evacuative), kāsaghna (antitussive), and vāmanīya (emetic) (40.3); 422 the preparation of the wick (varti) for these fumigations; the materials and drugs to be employed (40.4), 423 the materials for the pipe (dhūmanetra) for funigation and smoking; the measurements of

the pipe, dependent on the type of fumigation; 424 the vrananetra (used for fumigating a sore), its length and girth, the width of the orifice (40.5); the ways of inhaling and exhaling the smoke through mouth and nose, dependent on the type of fumigation (40.6-9):⁴²⁵ special rules regarding the wick in the various types of fumigation (40.10); contra-indications for fumigation and smoking (40.11); ⁴²⁶ disorders resulting from smoking at improper hours (40.12); 427 the twelve occasions on which the first three types of inhaling smoke may be practised; the occasions most suitable to the use of the snaihika, vairecanika and prāyogika types (40.13);⁴²⁸ the effects on the dosas of these three types (40.14); the beneficial effects of fumigation and smoking (40.15); 429 the disorders warded off (40.16); 430 the features of adequate, inadequate and excessive application (40.17);⁴³¹ rules regarding the number of times the smoke should be inhaled in the prayogika type; the treatment with the snaihika type should be continued until tears begin to flow, the vairecanika type until the dosas are eliminated; rules regarding the vāmanīya and kāsaghna types (40.18); 432 the fumigation of sores (40.19); an errhine (nasya) is a (powdered) drug or a medicated fatty substance (sneha), administered through the nostrils; it is of two main types; sirovirecana (evacuative with regard to the head) and snehana (oleating); five varieties are distinguished: nasya, śirovirecana, pratimarśa, avapīda, and pradhamana; nasya and śirovirecana are the most important varieties; pratimarsa is a special form of nasya; avapida and pradhamana are special forms of śirovirecana; the term nasya covers all five varieties (40.21); 433 the preparation of a nasya and a sirovirecana, their indications, and the times of their administration (40.22-24);⁴³⁴ the technique of administering a śirovirecana errhine and the rules to be observed by the patient (40.25-27); ⁴³⁵ the administration of a snehana errhine, which should not be retained and swallowed, but spit out; the minimum dose is eight drops, the intermediate dose a sukti, 436 the maximum dose a pāniśukti⁴³⁷ (40.28-30); after-treatment; things to be avoided by the patient (40.31); the signs of adequate, deficient and excessive administration of a snehana errhine (40.32-35); the proper doses of a śirovirecana errhine are four, six or eight drops, dependent on the strength of the patient; the signs of adequate, deficient and excessive administration; the procedure to be adopted in cases of deficient and excessive treatment (40.36-41); an errhine (nasya) should be used on alternate days or every third day, either for a week or three weeks, or as long as necessary (40.42); a patient overwhelmed by vāta should be treated with a nasya twice daily (40.43);⁴³⁸ rules for the preparation, the administration, and the indications of an avapīda (40.44): 439 śirovirecana in particular groups of patients (40.45); powdered drugs (cūrņa) should be used for pradhamana; indications for this treatment (40.46);⁴⁴⁰ contra-indications for the treatment with errhines (40.47); ⁴⁴¹ disorders due to an improper administration of errhines; these disorders are caused by aggravation (utkleśa) or decrease (kṣaya) of the dosas; the treatment of the disorders (40.48-50); the fourteen occasions suitable to the use of a pratimarśa (40.51); the beneficial effects on each of these occasions (40.52); the correct dose of medicated oil for a pratimarsa is that which, when snuffed, just reaches the oral cavity (40.53); beneficial effects of the treatment with an errhine (40.54-55); oil should be used as the vehiculum of an errhine in disorders caused by a combination of kapha and vata, fat (vasa) in vata disorders, ghee in pitta disorders, bone marrow in disorders by a combination of pitta and vata; oil, however, may be used in all cases since it does not disagree with the seat of kapha involved (i.e., the head) (40.56-57); gargles (kavala)⁴⁴² are of four types: snehin (oleating), prasādin (soothing), śodhin (purifying), and ropana (promoting the healing of sores) (40.58); these should be used in disorders due to vāta, pitta, or kapha, and when sores are present in the oral cavity (40.59-60); the preparation of a gargle; the preparation of the patient (49.61); when the quantity of fluid can easily be moved about in the mouth it is called a kayala; when this is difficult, it is called a gandūsa (50.62); both should be kept in the mouth until the cheeks are full of dosas, and both nostrils and eyes begin to secrete a watery fluid; it should then be expelled and a fresh dose taken again (40.63); the fluids that may be employed (40.64); the signs of proper, deficient and excessive treatment (50.65-67); the treatment of a burning sensation in the mouth due to over-dosage (40.68); the remedy called pratisārana 443 may be prepared with a kalka (paste), rasakriyā (inspissated juice), with honey as the vehiculum, and with a cūrna (powdered drug) (40.69); it is used in diseases of the mouth and should be applied with the tip of a finger; the signs of deficient and excessive treatment are like those of a kavala; pratisarana cures the same diseases as kavala; a particular dietary regimen should be observed during the treatment (40.70-71).

Chapter 5 Kalpasthāna

Chapter one is devoted to the protection of foods and drinks (annapānarakṣā).

The subjects dealt with are: a king is always in danger of being poisoned; women, wanting to secure a man's affection, may try to achieve their aim by the administration of (poisonous) preparations;² the contact with a poison-girl (visakanyā)³ may also prove to be instantaneously fatal to a man; the (royal) physician should therefore always do his utmost to protect a king from being poisoned (1.4-7); the qualities the physician should possess who is in charge of the (royal) kitchen (mahānasa) (1.8-11); the royal kitchen, its location, design, utensils, personnel, etc. (1.12-13); the superintendent (adhyaksa) of the kitchen should possess the same qualities as the (royal) physician (1.14ab); 4 the qualities required in those working in the kitchen (1.14cd-16ab); the responsibilities of the physician attached to the royal kitchen (1.16cd-17ab); all those with specialized tasks should be under the direct control of the (responsible) physician (1.17cd-18ab); characteristic features of a poisoner; his detection (1.18cd-24); 5 articles which may be poisoned (1.25-27); the detection of poisoned food by throwing it into a fire or giving it to various birds and other animals (1.28-34ab); poisoning by the inhalation of the vapours (bāspa) arising from food, its symptoms and treatment (1.34cd-36); 7 the symptoms and treatment of poisoning by touching food with the hands (1.37)⁸ and taking it into the mouth (1.38–39); 9 the symptoms and treatment in case the poison has reached the āmāśaya (1.40-41) 10 or pakvāśaya (1.42-43); 11 the characteristics of poisoned liquids (1.44-45), vegetables, fruits, soups, etc. (1.46-47); 12 the characteristic of a poisoned toothbrush (dantakāstha), the symptoms caused by its use, and the treatment of this type of poisoning (1.48-50); ¹³ the disorders caused by a poisoned tongue-scraper (jihvānirlekha) or gargle (kavala) should be treated in the same way (1.51ab); the characteristics of poisoned substances used for abhyanga (massage oils); the disorders caused by their use and the treatment of these disorders (1.51cd-54); ¹⁴ poisoning by substances used for utsādana and pariseka, by decoctions (kasāya), ointments (anulepana), bedding, garments, and armour (tanutra) shows the same features (1.55); 15 the symptoms caused by a poisoned avalekhana 16 and their treatment (1.56-58); poisoning by hair oils (siro'bhyanga), head covers, bathing water, turbans (usnīsa), and garlands requires the same treatment (1.59); ¹⁷ symptoms caused by poisoned facial cosmetics (mukhālepa) and their treatment (1.60-61); 18 the symptoms of poisoning in an elephant and other animals used for riding; the symptoms occurring in those riding these animals; the treatment of animal and rider is the same as that in poisoning by an abhyanga (1.62-63ab); ¹⁹ the symptoms of poisoning by errhines (nasya) or medicinal smokes

and fumigations (dhūma) and their treatment (1.63cd-65ab),²⁰ the characteristics of a poisoned flower garland and the symptoms caused by smelling it; the treatment is similar to that employed in poisoning by vapours and facial cosmetics (1.65cd-66);²¹ the symptoms caused by poisoned oils for the ears and the treatment of such cases (1.67-68); the symptoms caused by a poisoned collyrium (añjana) and their treatment (1.69-72ab); 22 the symptoms caused by poisoned sandals (pādukā), shoes (upānah), and foot-stools (pādapītha); their treatment (1.72cd-73);23 the characteristics of poisoned ornaments and the symptoms caused by their use; 24 the treatment of poisoning by footwear or ornaments is like that of poisoning by an abhyanga (1.74-75a); general therapeutic measures: the mahāsugandhyagada, strong purgatives and emetics, and phlebotomy (1.75cd-78ab); the plants called mūṣikā and a jaruhā, tied round the wrists of a king, make all poisoned foods harmless (1.78cd-79ab); a wise (king) should, surrounded by his friends, always protect his heart (hrdayāvarana),25 drink the ghees called ajeya²⁶ and amrta,²⁷ and regularly take particular articles of diet (1.79cd-81); meat dishes and other dietary items which counteract poisons (1.82-84); someone who has ingested a poisonous substance should protect his heart and be made to vomit (1.85).

Chapter two is devoted to the knowledge of poisons of vegetable and mineral origin (sthāvaravisa).

Its subjects are: the two groups of poisonous substances: sthāvara and jangama (of animal origin); the sources (adhisthana) of the first group are ten, those of the second group sixteen in number (2.3); the ten sources of sthāvara poisons are: roots, leaves, fruits, flowers, barks, milky juices (ksīra), piths (sāra), gums and resins (niryāsa), inorganic substances (dhātu), and bulbs and tubers (kanda) (2.4); the poisonous roots, eight in number, are those of klītaka, aśvamāra, guñjā, sugandha, gargaraka, ²⁸ karaghāta, vidyucchikā, and vijayā; the five plants with poisonous leaves are visapattrikā, lambā, (a) varadāru, karambha, and mahākarambha; the twelve plants with poisonous fruits are kumudvatī, venukā, karambha, mahākarambha, karkotaka, renuka, khadyotaka, carmarī, ibhagandhā, sarpaghātin, nandana, and sārapāka; the five plants with poisonous flowers are vetra, kadamba, vallīja, karambha and mahākarambha; the seven plants with a poisonous bark, pith or gum are antrapācaka, kartarīya, saurīyaka, karaghāta, karambha, nandana, and nārācaka; 29 the three plants with a poisonous milky juice are kumudaghnī, snuhī and jālakṣīrī; the two mineral poisons are phenāśman and haritāla; the thirteen plants with poisonous bulbs or tubers are kālakūta, ³⁰ vatsanābha, sarsapa, pālaka, kardamaka, vairātaka, mustaka, śrngīvisa, prapundarīka, mūlaka, hālāhala, 31 mahāvisa, and karkaṭaka; 32 the total number of sthavara poisons is fifty-five (2.5); the general symptoms caused by each of the first nine types of sthāvara poisons (2.7-10); after some time, all these poisons prove to be fatal (2.11ab); 33 the poisons of bulbs and tubers have a strong action; the symptoms caused by each of the thirteen plants belonging to this group (2.1 lcd-18ab); the ten properties they have in common: rūkṣa, uṣṇa, tīkṣṇa, sūksma, āśu, vyavāyin, vikāśin, viśada, laghu, and apākin (indigestible) (2.18cd-20ab); ³⁴ the effects of these properties (2.20cd-23); 35 any poison, whether sthavara, jangama or krtrima (artificial), which is instantaneously fatal, should be known as possessing the ten (mentioned) properties (2.24); any poison, not fully eliminated from the body, present within the system for a long time (jīrna), enfeebled by the action of antidotes, desiccated by the action of fire, wind or sun, or naturally lacking part of the properties of a poison, is designated as dūsīvisa; 36 dūsīvisa ceases to be fatal owing to the weakness of its potency, and is, covered by kapha, retained for a long time (2.25-26); ³⁷ the general symptoms caused by dūsīvisa (2.27); 38 the actions on the dosas and dhātus of dūsīvisa when lodged in āmāśaya, pakvāśaya or one or more of the dhātus (2.28–29ab); ³⁹ the symptoms flare up by exposure to cold, wind and bad weather (durdina) (2.29cd);⁴⁰ the prodromes of poisoning by dūsīvisa (2,30ab); the symptoms and disorders caused by dūsīvisa (2.30cd-32); 41 the derivation of the term dūsīvisa (2.33); 42 the signs characteristic of the seven stages (vega) of poisoning by a sthavara substance (2.34-39);⁴³ treatment during each of these stages (2.40-43);⁴⁴ general measures in cases of poisoning (2.44–46); the preparation of a jeyaghrta, which counteracts all poisons (2.47–49); the antidote (agada) called dūsīvisāri; the preliminary treatment of the patient and the preparation of this drug (2.50-52); complications that may arise in poisoning; their treatment (2.53-54); (the disorders caused by) dūṣīviṣa are curable in self-possessed patients and when they are of recent origin; cases of more than one year's standing are generally palliable, but become incurable when the patient has become weak and leads an unhealthy life (2.55).

Chapter three is devoted to the knowledge of poisons of animal origin (jangamavişa). Its subjects are: the enumeration of the already briefly mentioned sixteen sources of poisons of animal origin; these poisons reside in the gaze (drsti), breath (nihśvāsa), fangs (damstrā), nails (nakha), urine, excrement, semen, saliva (lālā), menstrual discharge (ārtava), biting parts (mukhasamdamśa), flatus (viśardhita), mouth parts (tunda), bones, bile, bristles (śūka), and dead bodies (śava) (3.4); the poison of celestial (divya) serpents resides in their gaze and breath, that of earthly (bhauma) snakes in their fangs; the poison is located in the teeth (damstrā) and nails of cats, dogs, monkeys (vānara), makaras, 45 frogs, pākamatsyas, 46 godhās, 47 śambūkas, 48 pracalākas, 49 grhagodhikās, 50 small invertebrates with four legs (catuspādakīta), etc., in the urine and excrements of cipitas, piccitakas, 51 kasāyavāsikas, 52 sarsapakas, 53 totakas, ⁵⁴ varcahkītas, ⁵⁵ and kaundinyakas, ⁵⁶ in the semen of mūsikas, ⁵⁷ in the saliva, urine, excrements, biting parts, nails, semen and menstrual discharge of spiders (lūtā), in the stinging parts (āra) of scorpions (vṛścika), viśvambharas, 58 varatīs, 59 rājīvamatsyas, 60 uccitingas, 61 and samudravrścikas, 62 in the biting parts, flatus, urine and excrements of the animals called citrasiras, 63 sarāva, 64 kurdisata, dāruka, arimedaka, 65 and sārikāmukha, 66 in the biting parts of maksikās, 67 kanabhas 68 and leeches, in the bones of animals killed by a poison, in the scales (kantaka) of a snake, in the bones of a varatīmatsya, in the bile of a śakulīmatsya, raktarā ji 69 and varatīmatsya, 70 in the bristles and mouth parts of the animals called sūksmatunda, uccitinga, varatī, 71 śatapadī, ⁷² śūka, valabhikā, ⁷³ śrngī, ⁷⁴ and bhu amara, ⁷⁵ in the dead bodies of kītas and snakes, and in the biting parts of animals not mentioned (3.5); the enemies of a king, when invading his country, poison the pastures, waters, roads, food, smoke, and air; ⁷⁶

purificatory measures should be taken after recognizing the characteristics (3.6); signs indicating that water has been poisoned; disorders caused by it; methods of purifying poisoned water (3.7–10ab); 77 the disorders caused by poisoned soil (ksiti), stone slabs (śilātala), steps on the bank of a river at a tīrtha (place of pilgrimage), uncultivated soil (īrina); purificatory measures (3.10cd-12); symptoms caused by poisoned grass and other fodder; treatment by means of appropriate drugs and by beating on drums and sounding other musical instruments, besmeared with antipoisonous substances (3.13-15); 78 signs of poisoned air; disorders caused by it; purification of the air (3.16-17); the mythic origin of poison, associated with Brahmā's wrath over the asura Kaitabha, 79 who obstructed the creation of the living beings (3.18–22);80 just like rain water, which has no manifest taste and acquires the taste of the soil it falls upon, poison acquires the taste of the substance in which it stays after pervading it (3.23-24); poisons excite all the dosas by their sharp (tīksna) property; for that reason, these dosas forego their proper functions; since poisons cannot be digested, they obstruct the pranas; breathing becomes difficult because its pathway is covered by kapha; consequently, a poisoned person, though remaining alive, loses consciousness (3.25-27); the venom of snakes is, like semen, present throughout their body; just like semen is collected and ejaculated by friction, snake venom is collected in the hook⁸¹-like fangs in a state of anger and cannot be emitted without lowering them (3.28-29);82 sprinkling (pariseka) with cold water is indicated in poisoning by hot and sharp substances; sudation is, however, not contraindicated in poisoning by kītas with slow-acting and not very hot poisons; poisoning by kītas with strong poisons should be treated like cases of snake-bite (3.30-32ab); the flesh of animals killed by a poisoned arrow or the bite of a poisonous animal should not be eaten, except when consumed within a muhūrta and when the area of the injury is excluded, because the poison spreads from the site of in jury to all the other parts of the body (3.32cd-35ab); the symptoms of someone who has taken poison; the heart of such a person cannot be consumed by fire, because it is pervaded by the poison (3.35cd-37); 83 signs indicating a fatal outcome in cases of snake-bite (3.38-44).84

Chapter four is devoted to the knowledge about the bites of venomous snakes.

Its subjects are: Suśruta's questions to Dhanvantari on the number of snakes, their classification, the symptoms caused by their bites, and the stages of poisoning (4.3–4); the innumerability of snakes, of which Vāsuki, Takṣaka, etc., are the foremost, steri actions and functions; the incurability of the disorders due to the breath and gaze for these (celestial) snakes, who deserve to be honoured by human beings (4.5–8ab); the earthly snakes with poisonous fangs are eighty in number; they are divided into either five: darvīkara, mandalin, rājimant, nirviṣa and vaikarañja, or three groups: darvīkara, mandalin and rājimant; the tree are twenty-six kinds of darvīkara, twenty-two kinds of mandalin, ten kinds of rājimant, twelve kinds of nirviṣa, and three kinds of vaikarañja; she snakes of vaikarañja origin are seven in number, variegated (citra), and either mandalin or rājila (4.8cd–13ab); origin are seven in number, variegated (citra), and either mandalin or rājila (4.8cd–13ab); some add a fourth type, called sarpāngābhihata (coming in contact with a snake's body) (4.13cd–14); the character-

istics of these four types (4.15-19); bites by diseased, frightened, very old or young snakes are less venomous (4.20); 91 snake poison does no harm in regions inhabited by Garuda, 92 deities, brahmarsis, yaksas and siddhas, nor in places where antipoisonous drugs abound (4.21); 93 the characteristics of darvīkara, 94 mandalin, 95 and rājimant 96 snakes (4.22-24); 97 the characteristics of brāhmana, ksatriya, vaiśya, and śūdra snakes (4.25-28); 98 snakes which are hooded (phanin) 99 excite vata, mandalin snakes pitta, rājimant snakes kapha; 100 hybrid snakes 101 excite two dosas, dependent on those associated with their parents (4.29-30c); 102 rajimant snakes move about in the last quarter (yāma) of the night, mandalin snakes in the first three quarters, darvīkara snakes during the day (4.30d-31); fatal bites are those of a young darvīkara, an old mandalin, and a rajimant of middle age (4.32); 103 less dangerous are the bites of snakes which are defeated by a mongoose (nakula), or which are very young, distressed by water, weakened, or old, and which have recently cast off their skin (4.33); 104 the darvīkara snakes are: 105 krsnasarpa, 106 mahākrsna, krsnodara, śvetakapota, mahākapota, 107 balāhaka, mahāsarpa, śaṅkhakapāla, lohitāksa, gavedhuka, parisarpa, khandaphana, kakuda, padma, mahapadma, darbhapuspa, dadhimukha, pundarika, bhrūkutīmukha, viskira, puspābhikīrna, girisarpa, rjusarpa, śvetodara, mahāśiras. alagarda, and āsīvisa; 108 the mandalin snakes are; ādarsamandala, svetamandala, raktamandala, citramandala, prsata, rodhrapuspa, milindaka, gonasa, 109 vrddhagonasa, panasa, mahāpanasa, venupattraka, šišuka, madana, pālindira, pingala, tantuka, puspapāndu, sadanga, agnika, babhru, kasāya, kalusa, pārāvata, hastābharana, citraka, and enīpada; 110 the rājimant snakes are: pundarīka, rājicitra, angularāji, bindurāji, kardamaka, trnasosaka, sarsapaka, svetahanu, darbhapuspa, cakraka, godhūmaka, and kikkisāda; 111 the nirvisa snakes 112 are: galagolī, śūkapattra, ajagara, divyaka, varsāhika, puspaśakalin, jyotīratha, ksīrikāpuspaka, ahipatāka, andhāhika, gaurāhika, and vrkseśaya; 113 vaikarañ ja snakès are cross-breeds of the above three groups; they are called mākuli, potagala, and snigdharāji; 114 mākuli is a cross-breed of kṛṣṇasarpa and gonasa, potagala of rājila and gonasa, snigdharāji of krsnasarpa and rājimant; some are of the opinion that the poison of a makuli is like that of its male parent, that of the other two like that of their female parent; the vaikarañia snakes are of seven subtypes: divyelaka, rodhrapuspaka, rājicitraka, potagala, puspābhikīrna, darbhapuspa, and vellitaka; the first three resemble the rājila (= rājimant), the other four the mandalin; 115 thus the eighty kinds of snakes have been described (4.34); characteristic features of male, female and napumsaka snakes (4.35); 116 the general effects of snake-bite (4.36); the signs and symptoms of bites by darvīkara, mandalin and rājimant snakes (4.37); 117 characteristic features of persons bitten by a male, female or napumsaka snake, 118 by a pregnant (garbhinī) snake, or one which has recently given birth (sūtikā), 119 by an old, young or non-venomous snake; some assert that the bite of a blind snake causes blindness; an ajagara 120 kills its victim by swallowing it, and not by means of poison; a person bitten by a serpent with an instantaneously deadly (sadyahprānahara) poison drops down and loses consciousness (4.38); the characteristic of the seven stages (vega) of poisoning by the bite of a darvīkara, mandalin, and rājimant snake respectively (4.39); 121 these stages result from the successive involvement of the seven kalās, which are located between the dhātus; ¹²² the amount of time which a poison, transported by vāta, requires for the penetration of each subsequent kalā is called vegāntara (4.40–41); the characteristics of the four stages of poisoning by a snake-bite which occur in mammals (paśu); some are of the opinion that three stages, which include the fourth (described above), are characteristic of mammals; the characteristics of the three stages of poisoning by a snake-bite in birds; some hold that one stage only occurs in birds (4.42–45ab); ¹²³ cats, mongooses, etc., are not much affected by (snake) poison (4.45cd). ¹²⁴

Chapter five, devoted to the treatment of snake-bites, 125 deals with the following subjects: bites in the extremities should be treated by the application of a tourniquet (aristā), 126 four angula above the site of the bite; a piece of cloth (plota), leather (carmanta), (inner) bark of a tree (valka), and similar soft materials are suitable for a tourniquet; a tourniquet prevents spreading of the poison over the whole body (5.3-4); ¹²⁷ wherever a tourniquet (bandha) cannot be applied, one should resort to incision (cheda), sucking (ācūsana), and cauterization (dāha) (5.6);128 the patient should fill his mouth with a piece of cloth 129 and then suck the bite, or he should immediately bite the serpent, or, failing that, a clod of earth (losta) (5.6);¹³⁰ the seat of the bite by a mandalin snake should never be cauterized because pitta, prevalent in a mandalin poison, would rapidly spread due to its heat (5.7); the tying of the tourniquet should be accompanied by the muttering of mantras by an expert (5.8); the effectiveness of mantras, ¹³¹ which act more rapidly than drugs; rules to be kept by the mantra specialist; antidotes (agada) should also be prescribed, because the improper use of mantras will not take effect (5.9-13); bloodletting in cases of snake-bite (5.14-15); ¹³² scarification (pracchana) of the bite, the application of a paste (pralepa). and irrigation (pariseka) of the lesion (5.16); oral medications (5.17-18ab); articles of diet to be avoided by the patient (5.18cd); the induction of vomiting (5.19); treatment during each of the seven stages of poisoning ¹³³ by the bite of a darvīkara (5.20–24ab), mandalin (5.24cd-27), and rajimant snake (5.28-30ab); the described measures should be adopted in a milder form in case the patient is a pregnant woman, a child, or someone advanced in age (5.30cd-31ab); special rules for the treatment of animals bitten by a venomous snake (5.31cd-33ab); general rules regarding the dosages of medicinal preparations to be prescribed against snake-bite (5.33c-t); factors to be taken into consideration before beginning treatment; type of country, constitution. sātmya, season, stage of poisoning, and strength of the patient (5.34); bloodletting should speedily be resorted to when the bitten part is discoloured, hard, swollen, and painful (5.36); dietary rules for hungry patients and those with a predominance of vāta (5.37); the treatment of patients with symptoms mainly due to pitta (5.38); the treatment of patients with a constitution dominated by kapha and suffering from a type of poison that provokes kapha (5.39); ¹³⁴ indications for purgation (5.40); the application of a collyrium (5.41); evacuation of the head (sirovīrecana) (5.42); the treatment of patients who lost consciousness (5.43-50ab); 135 treatment after the removal of a tourniquet (5.50cd-51 ab); treatment of dosas which remain excited after the elimination of a poison (5.51cd-54); treatment of patients who are unconscious due to a fall, drowning, or hanging (5.55); gangrene (pūtimāmsa) may be caused by a too tightly applied tourniquet, too deep scarifications, irritant pastes, etc.; its characteristics (5.56); the characteristic signs of arrow wounds and the symptoms occurring when it was besmeared with a poison (digdhaviddha) (5.57–58ab); ¹³⁶ the treatment of gangrene (pūtimāṃsa) (5.58cd–61ab); recipes of antidotes (agada) ¹³⁷ and their effects: mahāgada (5.61cd–63ab), ¹³⁸ ajitāgada (5.63cd–65ab), ¹³⁹ tārkṣyāgada (5.65cd–68ab), ṛṣabhāgada (5.68cd–73ab), and saṃjīvanāgada ¹⁴⁰ (5.73cd–75ab); specific antidotes against darvīkara and rājila snake venom (5.75cd–76ab) ¹⁴¹ and one against maṇḍalin snake venom (5.76cd–78ab); ¹⁴² another antidote: vaṃśatvagādyagada (5.78cd–80); antidotes which are specifics against the poison of kīṭas (5.81) and mūṣikās (5.82–83); the drugs belonging to the ekasara group; singly, or in a combination of two or three, these drugs counteract poisons (5.84–86).

Chapter six is, in agreement with its title (dundubhisvanīya), devoted to the (antipoisonous) sounds of drums, but this does not exhaust its contents.

The subjects dealt with are: the preparation of the antidote called ksārāgada (6.3), 144 to be smeared on drums (dundubhi), 145 banners (patākā), 146 and gateways (torana); people hearing these drums, looking at these banners, or touching these gateways get rid of (the effects of) poison (6.4); 147 other disorders cured by ksārāgada (6.5-6); this drug can be used always in all types of poisoning, for it subdues even Taksaka, 148 the chief one (among the celestial serpents) (6.7); the preparation of kalyānakasarpis, which is recommended against many disorders, including those caused by gara ¹⁴⁹ (6.8–11); ¹⁵⁰ the preparation of amrtaghrta ¹⁵¹ and its effects in cases of poisoming (6.12-13); the preparation of mahāsugandhyagada, a compound drug with eighty-five ingredients, the chief one among the antidotes, able to subdue even the infuriated Vāsuki, 152 the king of the nāgas (serpents); a king should always have it at his disposal and use it after bathing, which will make him beloved among his subjects and shining with majesty amidst his enemies (6.14-27); 153 all remedial measures, heating ones excepted, should be adopted in cases of poisoning; however, the disorders caused by poisonous kītas are aggravated by cooling measures (6.28); rules concerning the diet and behaviour of patients suffering from poisoning (6.29-31); 154 signs indicating the elimination of poison and cure of the patient (6.32).

Chapter seven (mūsikakalpa) is devoted to poisoning by rat-bites. 155

Its subjects are: rats (mūṣika), as mentioned before, ¹⁵⁶ have poison in their semen; they are of eighteen kinds: lālana, putraka, kṛṣṇa, haṃsira, cikvira (or cikkira), chucchundara, alasa, kaṣāyadaśana, kulinga, ajita, capala, kapila, kokila, aruṇa, mahākṛṣṇa, śveta, mahākapila, and kapotābha (7.3–6); ¹⁵⁷ corruption of the blood occurs in that part of the body which has come in contact with the semen of a mūṣika, or its nails, teeth, etc., besmeared with semen (7.7); the general symptoms of poisoning by the bite of a mūṣika (7.8–10ab); ¹⁵⁸ the symptoms and treatment of a bite by a lālana (7.10cd–11ab), putraka (7.11cd–12), kṛṣṇa (7.13), haṃsira (7.14), cikvira (7.15–16ab), chucchundara (7.16cd–18ab), alasa (7.18cd–19ab), kaṣāyadanta (7.19cd–20ab), kulinga (7.20cd–21ab), ajita (7.21cd–22ab), capala (7.22cd–23ab), kapila (7.23cd–24ab), and kokila (7.24cd–25ab); the bite of the aruṇa excites vāta, that

of the mahākṛṣṇa pitta, that of the śveta kapha, that of the mahākapila blood, and that of the kapota all four (dosas) (7.25cd-26); the disorders caused by these bites (7.27) and their treatment (7.28-32ab); general measures against rat-bite poisoning (7.32cd-42); ¹⁵⁹ the pathogenesis and characteristic signs of rabies in dogs, jackals (śrgāla), ¹⁶⁰ hyenas (taraksu), 161 bears (rksa), tigers, etc. 162 (7.43-44); 163 the symptoms caused by the bite of a rabid animal (7.45-46a); a person bitten imitates the behaviour of the animal by which he has been attacked ¹⁶⁴ and dies ultimately (7.46cd-47ab); when the person bitten by an animal sees its image reflected in water or a mirror, this should be regarded as a sign foreboding death (7.47cd-48ab); when the patient becomes very frightened at the sight or touch of water, the disorder should be known as jalatrasa (hydrophobia), which is a sure sign of impending death (7.48cd-49ab); hydrophobia developing in someone not bitten or in a healthy person, either awake or asleep, is also incurable (7,49cd-50ab); the management of the disorders caused by the bite of a rabid animal; 165 after-treatment (7.50cd-59ab); religious healing measures, accompanied by a mantra, ¹⁶⁶ and followed by purificatory treatment (7.59cd-63ab); the wild animals mentioned, with poison in their teeth (damstrā), make the bitten person imitate their behaviour and cries (ruta); such a patient, even when treated with care, dies within a short time (7.63cd-64); the wounds caused by the nails and teeth of these wild animals should be rubbed and sprinkled over with tepid oil, since the poison of these animals excites vāta (7.65).¹⁶⁷

Chapter eight (kītakalpa) is devoted to poisoning by kītas.

The subjects dealt with are: kītas, which arise from the semen, excrements, urine, dead bodies and decomposing eggs of snakes, are constitutionally dominated by vayu, agni or ambu, 168 and are of various kinds; those which are constitutionally connected with all three dosas are, due to parināma, 169 very dangerous (sughora), in spite of being only kītas; four groups of kītas are distinguished (8.3-4); the kītas dominated by vāta, which make vāta excited and cause vāta diseases by their bites, are eighteen in number: kumbhīnasa, tundikerī, śrngī, ¹⁷⁰ śatakulīraka, ¹⁷¹ uccitinga, ¹⁷² agnināman, ciccitinga, mayūrikā, āvartaka, urabhra, sārikāmukha, vaidala, śarāvakurda, 173 abhīrāji, parusa, citraśīrsaka, 174 śatabāhu, and raktarāji 175 (8.5-8ab); the kīṭas, in the same way dominated by agni (= pitta), are twenty-four in number: kaundinyaka, 176 kanabhaka, 177 varatī, pattravrścika, vināsikā, brāhmanikā, bindula, 178 bhramara, 179 bāhyakī, piccita, 180 kumbhī, varcahkīta, 181 arimedaka, 182 padmakīta, dundubhika, makara, śatapādaka, 183 pañcālaka, pākamatsya, 184 kṛṣṇatuṇḍa, gardabhī, klīta, kṛmisarārī, and utkleśaka (8.8cd-12ab); the kītas, similarly dominated by soma (= kapha), are thirteen in number: viśvambhara, 185 pañcaśukla, pañcakrsna, kokila, saireyaka, pracalaka, 186 valabha, 187 kitibha, sūcīmukha, kṛṣṇagodhā, kasāyavāsika, 188 gardabhaka, and trotaka 189 (8.12cd-15ab); the twelve kītas with fatal bites are: tungīnāsa, vicilaka, tālaka, vāhaka, kosthāgārin, 190 krimikara, mandalapucchaka, tundanābha, sarsapika, ¹⁹¹ valguli, śambuka, and agnikīta; ¹⁹² the characteristics of the stages of poisoning by their bites are similar to those by snake-bites; their bites give rise to severe pains and diseases caused by concerted action of the dosas; the site of their bite shows the same colours as those produced by a caustic or by cauterization

(8.15cd-18); symptoms caused by kītas with a sharp (tīksna) poison (8.19-21); the other symptoms they cause are like those of dūsīvisa or poisonous plasters 193 (8.22-23a); symptoms brought about by kītas with a slow (manda) poison (8.23b-24ab); the powdered bodies (of these kītas), which act like dūsīvisa, turn into gara 194 when combined with various drugs or employed in a plaster (anulepana) (8.24cd-25ab); the four kinds of kanabha: 195 trikanta, 196 karinī, hastikaksa, and aparājita; the symptoms their very painful bites give rise to (8.26-27); ¹⁹⁷ the five kinds of godheraka: ¹⁹⁸ pratisūryaka, pingābhāsa, 199 bahuvarna, 200 nirūpama, and godheraka; 201 the symptoms produced by their bites (8.28); the six kinds of galagolikā: śvetā, krsnā, raktarā jī, raktamandalā, sarvaśvetā, and sarsapikā; the symptoms caused by the bites of the first five; the symptoms caused by the fatal bite of the sarsapikā (8.29); the eight kinds of śatapadī: parusā, krsnā, citrā, kapilā, pītikā, raktā, śvetā, and agniprabhā; the symptoms produced by their bites; 202 the additional symptoms of the bite by a śvetā or an agniprabhā (8.30); the eight kinds of frogs²⁰³ (mandūka): ²⁰⁴ krsna, sāra, kuhaka, harita, rakta, yavavarnābha, bhrkutī, and kotika; ²⁰⁵ symptoms caused by their bites; ²⁰⁶ additional symptoms by the bite of a bhrkutī or a kotika (8.31); the characteristics of and symptoms caused by the bites of a viśvambhara (8.32), ahindukā, kandūmakā, and śukavrntā (8.33); the six kinds of ants (pipīlikā): sthūlaśīrsan, samvāhikā, brāhmanikā, angulikā, kapilikā, and citravarnā; the characteristic signs caused by their bite (8.34); the six kinds of maksikā: 207 kāntārikā, kṛṣṇā, pingalā, madhūlikā, kasāyī, and sthālikā; the characteristic signs caused by their bite; 208 additional symptoms caused by the fatal bite of a kaṣāyī or a sthālikā²⁰⁹ (8.35); the five kinds of maśaka: ²¹⁰ sāmudra, parimandala, hastimaśaka, krsna, and pārvatīya; the characteristic signs of their bite: ²¹¹ the bite of a pārvatīya is fatal (8.36); the signs of a scratch by finger nails; the bites of leeches and their treatment have already been described²¹² (8.37); (the bites of) the godherikā, sthālikā, śvetā, agniprabhā, bhrkutī, and kotika are incurable (8.38); ²¹³ the symptoms elicited by contact with the dead body, urine, or excrements of a poisonous animal; the treatment is like that of a wound by a poisoned arrow (digdhaviddha) (8.40); characteristics of kīta bites which make treatment very troublesome (8.41); the treatment of bites by kītas with a powerful (ugra) poison (8.42-44ab); treatment with the utkārikā type of sudation (8.44cd-45); this treatment is contra-indicated in scorpion stings (8.46ab); specific antidotes (agada) against the bites of a trikantaka, galagolika, śatapad, mandūka, viśvambhara, ahindukā, kandūmakā, śūkavrnta, pipīlikā, maksikā, and maśaka (8.46cd-55); the treatment of scratches by finger nails (8.56ab); the bite by a pratisūryaka should be treated like a snake-bite (8.56cd); three groups of scorpions (vrścika)²¹⁴ are distinguished: those with a mild (manda), moderate (madhya) and strong poison (mahāvisa); 215 scorpions arising from cow dung and similar materials possess a mild poison, those arising from wood or bricks a moderate, 216 those arising from the decomposing body of a snake or from other poisonous materials a strong (tīksna) poison (8.56ef-57); those with a mild poison are twelve, those with a moderate poison three, and those with a strong poison fifteen in number, thus making a total of thirty (8.58); the scorpions with a mild poison are krsna (black), śyāva, karbura (variegated), pāndu (pale), gomūtrābha (coloured like cow's urine), karkaśa (rough), mecaka (bluish black), pīta (yellow), dhūmra

(smoke coloured), romasa (hairy), sadvalabha (coloured like grass), or rakta (red), and svetodara (having a white abdomen); these scorpions have more joints in their tails than other types (8.59-60ab); the symptoms caused by their stings (8.60cd-61ab); the scorpions with a moderate poison are rakta (red), pīta (vellow) or kapila, with a dhūmra (smoke coloured) belly; all of them have three joints (in their tails); they arise from the urine, excrements and decomposing eggs of the three groups of snakes, 217 and cause disorders of the same dosas as these snakes (8.61cd-62); the general symptoms of stings by these scorpions (8.63ab); the scorpions with a strong poison are śveta (white), citra (spotted), śyāmala, lohitābha (coloured like blood), rakta (red) or sveta (white) with a rakta (red) or nīla (dark blue) belly, pītarakta (yellow and red), nīlapīta (dark blue and yellow), raktanīla (red and dark blue), nīlasukļa (dark blue and white), or raktababhru (red and brown), possessing the same number of joints (three) as the previous group, one joint, no joints at all, or two joints; they are of various forms and colours, dreadful, and deadly; they find their origin in the decomposing bodies of snakes and animals killed by poison (8.63cd-65); their stings give rise to the same seven stages of poisoning as those caused by a snake-bite, and also to a series of other symptoms, ending in death (8.66);²¹⁸; treatment of stings by scorpions with a moderate or strong poison (8.67-68ab) treatment of stings by scorpions with a mild poison (8.68cd-74); ²¹⁹ a physician should accurately determine whether a person has been bitten by a venomous or non-venomous spider (lūtā), because spider poisons are very dangerous; in case of doubt, he should employ drugs which are non-contradictory (avirodhin) under the circumstances; antidotes (agadas) are only useful in cases of poisoning, and, employed otherwise, harmful (8.75-78); the symptoms caused by spider venom develop slowly; shortly after the bite, they are very difficult to ascertain; the symptoms appearing on the first to seventh day; the victim is liable to die on the seventh day, if the poison is sharp (tīksna), violent (canda), and strong (ugra); poisons of a moderate potency take some more time; mild poisons kill after a fortnight; the physician should therefore initiate treatment immediately after the bite (8.79-84); spiders emit their poison in seven different ways; it is present in their saliva (lālā), nails (nakha), urine, fangs (damstrā), menstrual discharge (rajas), excrements, and semen (indriva); its potency is strong, moderate or mild (8.85); the symptoms caused by contact with spider venom from these seven sources (8.86-88ab);²²⁰ the mythic origin of spiders, which arose from the drops of sweat falling from the forehead of Vasistha, whose wrath was aroused by the behaviour of Visvāmitra (8.88cd-93);²²¹ there are sixteen kinds of spiders; 222 the bites of eight kinds are curable with difficulty, while the others are incurable (8.94); ²²³ the spiders of the first group are: trimandalā, śvetā, kapilā, pītikā, ālavisā, mūtravisā, raktā, and kasanā; the symptoms caused by their venom; characteristic features are disorders caused by kapha and vata (8.95-96); the spiders of the second group are: sauvarnikā, lā javarnā, jālinī, enīpadī, krsnā, agnivarnā, kākāndā, and mālāgunā; the symptoms caused by their venom; characteristic features are disorders brought about by the three dosas (8,97-99); ²²⁴ the symptoms of the bite by a trimandalā and their treatment (8.101-102); the same with regard to the bite by a svetā (8.103–104), kapilā (8.105–106), pītikā (8.107–108). ālavisā (8.109-110), mūtravisā (8.111-112), raktā (8.113-114), kasanā (8.115), krsnā (8.116-117), and agnivaktrā²²⁵ (8.118-119ab); general remedies against spider bites (8.119cd-120); ²²⁶ the symptoms and treatment of the bites of eight spiders which are curable with difficulty have been described, along with two of the incurable ones; they may, sometimes, with good luck (yadrochayā), be treated successfully (8.121ab); the symptoms caused by the six remaining kinds, which are incurable (8.121cd): sauvarnikā (8.122), lājavarnā (8.123), jālinī (8.124), enīpadī (8.125), kākāndikā (8.126), and mālāgunā (8.127); these bites should be managed by all the described measures, taking particularly into consideration the derangements of the dosas, and excluding cauterization and excision (8.128); excision of the area of the bite should at once be carried out in curable cases, provided the lesion is not in the area of a marman, the patient is free from fever, and local swelling is minimal (8.129-130); afterwards, a plaster (lepa) should be applied (8.131); the recipe of the potion to be administered to the patient (8.132); the decoction to be used for washing the lesion (8.133ab); the treatment of complications (8.133cd); any of the following measures should be employed, as required by the case, against spider bites: errhines, collyria, unguents (abhyañjana), potions, fumigation, avapīdas, gargles, intense purificatory measures of both types (i.e., emetics and purgatives), and bloodletting by means of phlebotomy (8.134); ulcers (vrana), incidental to the bites of kītas and snakes, should be treated like corrupted sores (dustavrana) (8.135); the treatment of an excess of granulation tissue (karnikā) (8.136-138); thus the classification, the characteristics of the bites and the treatment of these bites, of one hundred and sixty-seven kītas have been described (8.139).

This last chapter of the Kalpasthāna ends with the statement that one hundred and twenty chapters are completed now, divided over the various sections; subjects not yet mentioned will be dealt with in the Uttara(tantra) (8.140); some verses are devoted to the praise of āyurveda (8.141–143).

Chapter 6 Uttaratantra

Chapter one, called aupadravika, ¹ begins with the statement that the Uttaratantra, often referred to in the preceding one hundred and twenty chapters, will be concerned with various kinds of diseases (roga) (1.3-4). The Uttaratantra will deal with the subjects of the śālākyatantra, as expounded by the king of Videha, ² with the diseases of children (kumārābādha) and their causes, ³ the diseases belonging to kāyacikitsā, as described in the six books on this subject by the great sages, ⁴ the diseases belonging to the categories upasarga⁵ and āgantu, ⁶ the sixty-three combinations of tastes, ⁷ rules relating to the maintenance of health (svasthavṛtta), ⁸ the (tantra)yuktis and their applications, ⁹ and, finally, the dosas and their combinations ¹⁰ (1.5-7).

The diseases pertaining to the head (uttamānga) will be described first (1.8cd-9). 11 The subjects dealt with are: 12 the measurements of the eyeball 13 (nayanabudbuda); it is two angula in depth (bāhulva), 14 or as deep as the udara of one's own thumb; 15 it is two angula and a half on all sides (sarvatah) 16 (1.10); the eyeball is perfectly globular (suvrtta), resembles the teat of a cow, and originates from all the (mahā)bhūtas; the muscular tissue (pala) derives from earth, the blood from fire, the black portion from air (vata), the white portion from water, and the channels for the tears (aśrumārga) from ākāśa (1.11–12ab); the black circular portion (krsnamandala) is said to measure one-third of the height (āyāma)¹⁷ of the eyeball; the pupil (dṛṣṭi) is said to measure one-seventh of the black portion (1.12cd-13); 18 the eye consists of mandalas, sandhis and patalas, which are five, six and six in number respectively (1.14); ¹⁹ the mandalas (circular structures) are successively, when moving from the periphery towards the central part: ²⁰ paksmamandala (the eyelashes), vartmamandala (the eyelids), svetamandala (the white part), 21 krsnamandala (the black part), 22 and drstimandala²³ (1.15),²⁴ the sandhis (junctures) are found between eyelashes and eyelids, eyelids and white part, white part and black part, black part and pupil, at the kanīnaka (inner canthus), and at the apānga (outer canthus) (1.16); two patalas (layers) are present in the eyelids; the other four in the eye itself are the seats of a very serious disease, called timira (1.17); the outermost of these four patalas is closely connected (āśrita) with the fiery and watery parts of the eye, 25 the other ones are connected with the muscles, fatty tissue, and bones respectively (1.18); ²⁶ their thickness (bāhulya) is one-fifth of the drsti (1.19ab); the (structures) holding (the parts of) the eyes together are the sirās, kandarās, fatty tissue (medas), cartilaginous tissue (kālaka), 27 and, beyond the kāla, 28 the phlegm (ślesman), along with its sirās (1.19cd-20ab); the dosas, spreading upwards through the sirās, cause very serious diseases when they reach the eyes (1.20cd-21ab);²⁹ the prodromes of eye diseases (1.21cd-23); general principles of treatment (1.24-25); aetiological factors in eye diseases (1.26-27); ten eye diseases are due to vata, ten to pitta, thirteen to kapha, sixteen to blood, twenty-five to all the dosas together, and two to exogenous (bahya) factors, thus making a total of seventy-six (1.28-29ab); 30 incurable diseases due to vāta are: hatādhimantha, 31 nimisa, 32 gambhīrikā drstih, 33 and vātahatavartman; 34 vātajakāca 35 is amenable to palliative treatment; curable are: anyamāruta, 36 śuskāksipāka, 37 vātādhīmantha, 38 vātasyanda, ³⁹ and mārutaparyaya ⁴⁰ (1,29cd-31ab); incurable diseases due to pitta are: hrasva jādya 41 and the pitta type of jalasrāva; 42 the parimlāyin 43 and nīla types of kāca⁴⁴ are amenable to palliative treatment when due to pitta; curable are the pitta types of abhisyanda 45 and adhimantha, 46 amlādhyusita, 47 suktikā, 48 pittavidagdhadrsti, 49 and dhūmadarśin⁵⁰ (1.31cd-33ab); an incurable disease is srāva caused by kapha;⁵¹ kāca due to kapha is amenable to palliative treatment; 52 curable are the kapha types of abhisyanda 53 and adhimantha, 54 balāsagrathita, 55 ślesmavidagdhadrsti, 56 pothakī,⁵⁷ lagaņa,⁵⁸ krimigranthi,⁵⁹ pariklinnavartman,⁶⁰ śuklārman,⁶¹ pistaka,⁶² and the kapha type of upanāha⁶³ (1.33cd-35); incurable diseases due to blood are raktasrāva, 64 a jakā jāta, 65 śonitārśas, 66 and vraņānvitašukra; 67 kāca due to blood 68 is amenable to palliative treatment; curable are the rakta types of (adhi)mantha⁶⁹ and (abhi)syanda, 76 klistavartman, 71 sirāharsa, 72 sirotpāta, 73 añ janākhyā, 74 sirā jāla, 75 parvanī, ⁷⁶ avranašukra, ⁷⁷ šonitārman, ⁷⁸ and arjuna ⁷⁹ (1.36–38); incurable diseases due to all the dosas are: pūyāsrāva, 80 nākulāndhya, 81 aksipākātyaya, 82 and ala jī, 83 amenable to palliative treatment are: kāca, when caused by all the dosas.⁸⁴ and paksmakopa; 85 curable are: vartmāvabandha, 86 sirāpidakā, 87 prastāryamnan, 88 adhimāṃsārman, ⁸⁹ snāyvarınan, ⁹⁰ utsariginī, ⁹¹ pūyālasa, ⁹² arbuda, ⁹³ sýāvavartman, ⁹⁴ kardamavartman, 95 arśovartman, 96 śuskārśas, 97 śarkarāvartman, 98 saśopha- and aśophapāka, 99 bahalavartman, 100 aklinnavartman, 101 kumbhīkā, 102 and bisavartman 103 (1.39-42); the sanimitta and animitta types of exogenous eye disease 104 are incurable (1.43ab); thus the seventy-six eye diseases have briefly been enumerated (1.43cd); nine eye diseases occur in the junctures (sandhi), twenty-one in the eyelids, eleven in the white part, four in the black part, seventeen in the whole eye, and twelve in the drsti; the two exogenous diseases are very serious; all these diseases will (now) be dealth with separately, along with their symptoms and treatment (1.44-45).

Chapter two is devoted to the knowledge concerning diseases of the junctures (sandhi). The subjects are: the nine diseases of the junctures: pūyālasa, upanāha, (the four types of) srāva, parvaṇikā, alajī, and kṛmigranthi (2.3); the characteristics of pūyālasa ¹⁰⁵ (2.4ab) and upanāha ¹⁰⁶ (2.4cd); the pathogenesis of srāva, ¹⁰⁷ regarded by some as netranādī; ¹⁰⁸ the characteristics of the four types of srāva: ¹⁰⁹ pūyāsrāva, ¹¹⁰ āsrāva due to kapha, ¹¹¹ blood, ¹¹² and pitta ¹¹³ (2.5–7); the characteristics of parvaṇī ¹¹⁴ and alajī ¹¹⁵ (2.8), and those of krimigranthi. ¹¹⁶

Chapter three is devoted to the knowledge about diseases of the eyelids. 117

Its subjects are: the pathogenesis of these diseases (3.3-4); the twenty-one diseases of the eyelids and their characteristics: utsanginī¹¹⁸ (3.9cd-10ab), ¹¹⁹ kumbhīkapiḍa-kās ¹²⁰ (3.10cd-11ab), ¹²¹ pothakī¹²² (3.11c-f), ¹²³ vartmaśarkarā (= śarkarāvartman) ¹²⁴

(3.12), ¹²⁵ arśovartman ¹²⁶ (3.13), ¹²⁷ śuṣkārśas ¹²⁸ (3.14), ¹²⁹ añjananāmikā (3.15) ¹³⁰ bahalavartman ¹³¹ (3.16), ¹³² vartmabandha (= vartmāvabandhaka) ¹³³ (3.17), ¹³⁴ kliṣṭavartman ¹³⁵ (3.18), ¹³⁶ vartmakardama (= kardamavartman) ¹³⁷ (3.19), ¹³⁸ śyāvavartman ¹³⁹ (3.20), ¹⁴⁰ (pra)klinnavartman ¹⁴¹ (3.21), ¹⁴² a(pari)klinnavartman ¹⁴³ (3.22), ¹⁴⁴ vātahatavartman ¹⁴⁵ (3.23), ¹⁴⁶ arbuda ¹⁴⁷ (3.24), ¹⁴⁸ nimeṣa ¹⁴⁹ (3.25), ¹⁵⁰ ś•nitārśas ¹⁵¹ (3.26), ¹⁵² lagaṇa ¹⁵³ (3.27), ¹⁵⁴ bisavartman ¹⁵⁵ (3.28), ¹⁵⁶ and pakṣmakopa ¹⁵⁷ (3.29–30). ¹⁵⁸

Chapter four is devoted to the knowledge about diseases of the white portion of the eye.

The eleven diseases of this group are enumerated and their characteristics described: prastāryarman ¹⁵⁹ (4.4cd), ¹⁶⁰ šuklārman ¹⁶¹ (4.5ab), ¹⁶² lohitārman (kṣatajārman) ¹⁶³ (4.5cd), ¹⁶⁴ adhimāṛṇṣārman ¹⁶⁵ (4.6ab), ¹⁶⁶ snāyvarman ¹⁶⁷ (4.6cd), ¹⁶⁸ śuki(kā) ¹⁶⁹ (4.7ab), ¹⁷⁰ ar juna ¹⁷¹ (4.7cd), ¹⁷² piṣtaka ¹⁷³ (4.8ab), ¹⁷⁴ sirājāla ¹⁷⁵ (4.8cd), ¹⁷⁶ sirājidakā ¹⁷⁷ (4.9ab), ¹⁷⁸ and balāsagrathita ¹⁷⁹ (4.9cd). ¹⁸⁰

Chapter five is devoted to the knowledge about diseases of the black portion of the eye.

The four diseases of this group are enumerated (5.3); the characteristics of savranaśukra ¹⁸¹ are described and the degrees of its curability, dependent on various factors (5.4-7); ¹⁸² the easily curable avranaśukra ¹⁸³ is described, followed by a type of this disease that is curable with difficulty (5.8-9ab); ¹⁸⁴ the characteristics of aksipākātyaya ¹⁸⁵ (5.9cd-10ab) ¹⁸⁶ and aiakāiāta ¹⁸⁷ (5.10c-f) ¹⁸⁸ are dealt with.

Chapter six is devoted to the knowledge about diseases of the whole eye.

The subjects dealt with are: the enumeration of the seventeen diseases belonging to this group (6.3-4); the diseases affecting the whole eye usually originate from abhisyanda, 189 which should therefore be treated as soon as it begins to develop (6.5); the characteristics of abhisyanda due to vata, ¹⁹⁰ pitta, ¹⁹¹ kapha, ¹⁹² and blood ¹⁹³ (6.6-9); ¹⁹⁴ these four types of abhisyanda, not treated properly and therefore aggravating, lead to the corresponding very painful types of adhimantha 195 (6.10); 196 the general characteristics of adhimantha (6.11); 197 the characteristics and symptoms of adhimantha due to vata, ¹⁹⁸ pitta, ¹⁹⁹ kapha, ²⁰⁰ and blood²⁰¹ (6.12-19); ²⁰² prognostic features; improperly treated adhimantha leads to the loss of eyesight within seven days when it is due to kapha, within six days when due to vata, within five days when due to blood, and instantaneously when due to pitta (6.20);²⁰³ the characteristics of sasopha²⁰⁴ and asopha aksipāka²⁰⁵ (6.21–23ab); ²⁰⁶ neglect of adhimantha due to vāta may lead to hatādhimantha, 207 which is incurable (6.23c-f); 208 the pathogenesis of hatādhimantha (6.24); ²⁰⁹ the pathogenesis and symptoms of vātaparyaya ²¹⁰ (6.25); ²¹¹ the characteristics of śuskāksipāka²¹² (6.26);²¹³ the pathogenesis and characteristics of anyatovāta²¹⁴ (6.27)²¹⁵ and amlādhyusita²¹⁶ (6.28);²¹⁷ the characteristics of sirotpāta²¹⁸ (6.29); ²¹⁹ neglect of sirotpāta may lead to sirāpraharsa²²⁰ (6.30).²²¹

Chapter seven is devoted to the knowledge about diseases of the dṛṣṭi.

The subjects dealt with are: the dṛṣṭi as described by ophthalmologists (naya-

nacintaka): its size is like that of a split lentil (masūradala); it is composed of pure parts (prasada) of the five mahabhūtas, glows like a firefly (khadyota) or spark of fire, is covered by the outer patala, has the form of a hole, and has a tolerance for cold (7.3-4); the two groups of six diseases of the drsti, including timira, which affect the patalas successively, will now be described (7.5); symptoms arising when the patalas are affected by the dosas: affection of the first patala gives rise to blurred (avyakta) vision (7.6-7ab); 222 the disorders of vision by affection of the second patala (7.7cd-10);²²³ the disorders of vision caused by affection of the third patala; these disorders, the details of which depend on the location of the dosa(s) in the drsti, are collectively called timira²²⁴ (7.11-15c);²²⁵ the gradual development of linganāśa, 226 also called nīlikā and kāca, 227 which results from an affection of the fourth patala (7.15d-18ab); ²²⁸ the characteristics of timira due to vāta (7.18cd-19ab), pitta (7.19cd-20ab), kapha (7.20cd-22ab), 229 blood (7.22cd-23ab), and concerted action of the dosas (7.23cd-24); ²³⁰ the characteristics of the sixth type of timira, ²³¹ called parimlayin, caused by pitta in combination with (murchita) the fiery energy (tejas) of blood (7.25-26ab); ²³² the colours of the six types of linganāśa: ruddy (aruna) due to vāta, parimlāyin²³³ or dark blue (nīla) due to pitta, white (sita) due to kapha, red (rakta) due to blood, and variegated (vicitra) due to all the dosas together (7.26cd-27);²³⁴ a round patch (mandala), arising from blood, resembling thick glass and glowing like fire, of a faint (mlayin), bluish (anīla) colour, occurs in the disease called parimlayin; it sometimes happens that vision is (partly) restored thanks to a decrease in the amount of (excited) dosas (7.28-29ab);²³⁵ features of the round patch (mandala) in linganāśa due to vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, and all three dosas together (7.29cd-33); ²³⁶ the other six diseases pertaining to the drsti (7.34-35ab); the characteristic features of pittavidagdhadrsti ²³⁷ (7.35cd-37ab)²³⁸ and kaphavidagdhadrsti ²³⁹ (7.37cd-38);²⁴⁰ the aetiology and characteristics of dhūmadarśin²⁴¹ (7.39);²⁴² the characteristics of hrasvajādya²⁴³ (7.40ab),²⁴⁴ nakulāndhya²⁴⁵ (7.40cd-4lab),²⁴⁶ and gambhīrikā²⁴⁷ (7.41cd-42ab);²⁴⁸ out of the two exogenous (types of linganāśa), nimittaja and animittaja, the former is caused by too much heat (abhitāpa) in the head²⁴⁹ and characterized by the same features as abhisyanda (7.42cd-43ab); ²⁵⁰ the animitta type is the result of seeing gods, sages, gandharvas, celestial serpents (mahoraga), and other very bright (bhāsvara) objects; in this disorder, the drsti is transparent and clear, with the colour of vaidūrya (7.43cd-44); ²⁵¹ traumatic disorders of the drsti (abhighātahatadrsti) are described (7.45).

Chapter eight is devoted to classifications regarding the treatment of eye diseases. ²⁵²
The subjects are: the eleven diseases curable by excision (chedya) (8.6), ²⁵³ scarification (lekhya) (8.7), ²⁵⁴ incision (bhedya) (8.8ab), and phlebotomy (8.8cd–9ab); diseases in which surgical measures (sastrapatana) are contra-indicated (8.9cd–10); diseases amenable to palliative treatment (8.11 ab); incurable diseases (8.11c-f).

Chapter nine is devoted to the management of vātābhiṣyanda (and other vāta disorders of the eyes).

The subjects dealt with are: general measures to be adopted in cases of (abhi)syanda

and adhīmantha (due to vāta) (9.3–5ab);²⁵⁵ local measures in these diseases (9.5cd–7ab); the diet to be recommended (9.7cd–8ab); drinks to be used after a meal (9.8cd–10ab); suitable errhines (9.10cd–11ab); the application of irrigation (seka, secana) and eyedrops (āścyotana) (9.11cd–13ab);²⁵⁶ eyedrops for relieving pain (9.13cd–14ab); collyria (añjana) (9.14cd–15ab); the recipe of a gutikāñjana (9.15cd–16ab); a snehāñjana (9.16cd); the same treatments should be adopted in cases of anyatovāta and mārutaparyaya (= vātaparyaya) (9.17); beneficial drinks in these two disorders (9.18–20ab); ²⁵⁷ the management of śuṣkākṣipāka (9.20cd–24); ²⁵⁸ any eye disease caused by vāta should be treated on the lines described (9.25).

Chapter ten is devoted to the treatment of pittābhiṣyanda (and other disorders of the eye due to pitta). ²⁵⁹

The subjects dealt with are: general measures to be adopted in cases of abhisyanda and adhimantha due to pitta (10.3); medicinal substances to be used for tarpaṇa, irrigation (seka), and the four types of nasya (10.4–6ab); any drug counteracting pitta is useful, as well as an errhine prepared with ghee (kṣīrasarpis) (10.6cd); collyria (10.7–11ab); ²⁶⁰ eyedrops (10.11cd–12); the treatment of amlādhyuṣita and śukti (10.13–15); ²⁶¹ the treatment of dhūmadarśin (10.16).

Chapter eleven is devoted to the treatment of kaphābhiṣyanda (and other disorders of the eye due to kapha).

The subjects dealt with are: the general management of abhisyanda and adhimantha due to kapha (11.3–5ab); drugs to be used for sudation and in plasters (anulepa) (11.5cd–6ab); collyria which are useful in all eye diseases caused by kapha (11.6cd–10ab); kṣāras to be employed as collyria in cases of balāsagrathita (11.10cd–12); collyria to be employed in cases of piṣṭaka (11.13–15ab); a yogāñjana against praklinnavartman (11.15cd–16ab); a collyrium against itching (kaṇdū) of the eye (11.16cd–17ab); a collyrium aginst itching and swelling (śopha) of the eye (11.17cd–18ab); generally, the management of (balāsagrathita, piṣṭaka and praklinnavartman) is the same as that of abhisyanda and adhimantha (due to kapha) (11.18cd).

Chapter twelve is devoted to the treatment of raktābhiṣyanda (and other diseases of the eve due to blood).

The subjects dealt with are: the general treatment of four diseases caused by blood (rakta): the raktaja types of abhiṣyanda and adhimantha, sirotpāta, and sirāharṣa (12.3-6ab); local therapeutic measures in these diseases (12.6c-f); the recipe of a plaster (pralepa) (12.7); analgesics (12.8-9); eyedrops (12.10); a collyrium useful in abhiṣyanda due to blood (12.11-12); a big type of varti used as a collyrium (12.13-14); collyria against sirotpāta (12.15-17ab) and sirāharṣa (12.17cd-18); the treatment of arjuna (12.19-24ab), avraṇaśukra (12.24cd-27), ²⁶² savraṇaśukra (12.28-36ab), and ajakā (12.36cd-37); the general treatment of saśopha- and aśophapāka (12.38-39ab); collyria (12.39cd-42ab); a rasakriyā (12.42c-f); eyedrops and collyria against akṣipāka (12.43-44); the general treatment of pūyālasa (12.45; collyria against pūyālasa (12.46); the general treatment of praklinnavartman (12.47); eyedrops, col-

lyria and rasakriyās against praklinnavartman (12.48–50ab); a pratyañjana ²⁶³ against praklinnavartman (12.50cd–51ab); collyria against aklinnavartman (12.51cd–53).

Chapter thirteen is devoted to the management of diseases in which scarification is indicated (lekhyaroga).

The subjects dealt with are: the technique of scarification, together with the preparation of the patient and the after-treatment (13.3–9ab); the signs of proper scarification (13.9cd–10ab); the signs of inadequate scarification, necessitating repetition of the procedure (13.10cd–12); the signs of excessive scarification; its treatment (13.13–14ab); special rules for particular groups among the nine diseases treatable by means of scarification ²⁶⁴ (13.14cd–16); the treatment of piḍakās (b•ils) of the eyelids (13.17–18).

Chapter fourteen is devoted to the management of diseases in which incision is indicated (bhedyaroga).

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of bisagranthi (14.3-4),lagana (1.5-6ab), añ jananāmikā (14.6cd-8ab), krimigranthi (14.8cd-9ab), and upanāha due to kapha (14.9cd-10ab); measures to be adopted prior to incision (14.10cd-11).

Chapter fifteen is devoted to the management of diseases is which excision is indicated (chedyaroga).

The subjects dealt with are: treatment preliminary to the excision (of an arman) (15.3); the surgical procedures ²⁶⁵ for the excision of (the five types of) arman (15.4–11ab); ²⁶⁶ after-treatment (15.11cd–14ab); analgesic preparations (15.14cd–16ab); removal of the remnants of an arman by means of lekhyāñjanas (caustic collyria) (15. 16cd); the early stage of an arman should be treated like (the disease called) śukra (15. 17); particular types of arman that should be excised (15.18); signs indicating properly performed excision (15.19); the treatment of sirājāla (15.20) and sirāpiḍakās (15.21); the treatment after excision (15.22); the treatment of parvaṇākā (15.23–25ab); a collyrium against arman, sirāpiḍakā, and sirājāla (15.25cd–28); the treatment of arśas, ²⁶⁷ śuṣkārśas, and arbuda (15.29–30); after-treatment in these disorders (15.31–33).

Chapter sixteen deals with the treatment of pakṣmakopa. 268

Its subjects are: the surgical treatment of pakṣmakopa (16.3–5ab); after-treatment; the removal of the stitches (16.5cd–6); treatment by cauterization or the application of a caustic (16.7); epilation of the affected eyelid (16.8); other treatment measures (16.9).

Chapter seventeen is devoted to the management of diseases of the dṛṣṭi.

The subjects dealt with are: three (diseases of the dṛṣṭi) are curable²⁶⁹ and three incurable; ²⁷⁰ six (diseases) are amenable to palliative treatment; ²⁷¹ the treatment of dhūmadarśin has already been described²⁷² (17.3); the treatment of pittavidagdhadṛṣṭi and kaphavidagdhadṛṣṭi (17.4–6ab); ²⁷³ collyria²⁷⁴ useful in these two diseases (17.6cd–27); ²⁷⁵ the six diseases amenable to palliative measures should be treated by bloodletting and evacuative (virecana) procedures (17.28); purificatory (saṃśodhana)

and pacificatory (samsamana) recipes useful in the various types of timira (17.29-32ab);²⁷⁶ an errhine (nāvana) against all types of timira (17.32cd); errhines against timira caused by pitta (17.33ab), a combination of vata and blood (17.33cd), and vāta (17.34); collyria against timira due to vāta (17.35); a pratyanjana against timira due to vāta (17.36ab); a collyrium against timira due to vāta when it has assumed its particular colour (17.36cd-37);²⁷⁷ prescriptions against timira due to pitta (17.38); a kşudrānjana (17.39ab) and pratyanjana²⁷⁸ (17.39cd) against timira due to pitta; another pratyañ jana against timira due to pitta (17.40ab); a collyrium against timira due to pitta when it has acquired its particular colour²⁷⁹ (17.40cd); a rasakriyāñ jana ²⁸⁰ against timira due to pitta (17.41ab); the treatment of timira due to kapha (17.41cd-44ab); the treatment of timira caused by all the dosas (17.44cd-46a); the treatment of timira caused by a trauma (ksata ia) and of the type called parimlayin (17.46ab); the measures adopted in cases of abhisyanda are also to be used, dependent on the dosa(s) involved (17.46cd); these measures are useful when the dosas begin to manifest themselves (dosodaya), but have not yet spread (through the eye)²⁸¹ (17.47ab); the collyria to be described in the kalpa²⁸² are also beneficial (17.47cd); general dietary habits which prevent the development of timira (17.48); specific articles of diet preventing timira (17.49); articles of diet which preserve and improve one's evesight (17.50-51); phlebotomy is contra-indicated when timira has acquired a particular colour (17.52); timira is curable when it is located in the first patala and has not yet acquired a particular colour; when located in the second patala and possessing a colour, it is curable with difficulty; when located in the third patala, it is only amenable to palliative treatment (17.53); when a colour is already present, all the palliative measures described should be employed too, as well as bloodletting by means of leeches (17.54); surgical treatment of linganāśā due to kapha can successfully be carried out when the dosa in the drsti is not crescent-shaped (ardhendvākrti) and does not resemble a drop of sweat (gharmāmbudindu) or a pearl (muktā); it should not be fixed (sthira), irregular (visama), thin in the centre, marked by lines (rājimant), very glossy (bahuprabha), associated with pain, or red (17.55–56); the proper weather conditions, the preparation of the patient and his positioning prior to surgical intervention; the technique of couching a cataract (linganāśa) due to kapha (17.57–64ab);²⁸³ the signs indicating that the operation has been successful (17.64cd-65ab); in case of failure, the whole procedure should be repeated (17.65cd-66ab); after-treatment (17.66cd-70); the operation should not be performed in those cases where phlebotomy is contra-indicated (17.71); complications of couching (17.72-77); the complications arising from trying to dislocate an immature (taruna) cataract; the treatment required in such a case (17.78-81); the complications arising from the use of an improper śalākā; the properties of a proper śalākā (17.82-85ab); complications resulting from technical errors or an improper regimen (17.85cd-86); recipes against postoperative pain and redness (17.87-95); collyria to improve vision (17.96-99); the collyria to be described in the kalpa²⁸⁴ are also recommended (17.100).

Chapter eighteen is devoted to the preparation of (externally applied) medicines (against eye diseases) (krivākalpa).

The subjects dealt with are: the enumeration of therapeutic measures and preparations employed in eye diseases: tarpaṇa, 285 putapāka, 286 seka (irrigation), āścyotana (eyedrops), ²⁸⁷ and añjana (collyrium) (18.4); the technique of tarpana; rules for various groups of diseases (18.5–12ab); the signs of proper, deficient and excessive tarpana (18.12cd-15); treatment in cases of deficient and excessive tarpana (18.16); indications and contra-indications for tarpana (18.17-19ab); indications for putapāka (18.19cd-20ab); putapāka should be employed when the dosas have been pacified and when the eyes can tolerate this type of preparation; putapāka is of three varieties: snehana (oleating), lekhana (scarifying) and ropana (healing) (18.20cd-21); indications for each of these three varieties (18.22); the ingredients of a snehana putapāka and the period of time during which the fluid should be retained (18.23); the same particulars with regard to a lekhana (18.24-25) and ropana (18.26) putapāka; procedures to be associated with putapaka of the snehana and lekhana types are fumigation, oleation and sudation (18.27); putapaka should be employed for one, two or three days; the period during which a particular regimen should be observed (yantranā) is twice as long (18. 28); rules for the period after treatment with tarpana and putapāka (18.29); the treatment of complications due to improper application of tarpana and putapāka (18.30); signs indicating proper, deficient and excessive treatment with putapāka (18.31-32); the method of preparing a putapāka ²⁸⁸ and the way of application (18.33–38); the bad effects of improper administration of tarpana and putapāka (18.39-40); the merits of proper tarpana and putapāka (18.41–42ab); the treatment of disorders due to improper use (18.42cd); particularities with regard to sudation and fumigation before and after tarpana and putapāka (18.43); āścyotana (the application of eyedrops) is indicated when the disease is not very grave; seka (irrigation) is indicated in more serious cases (18.44); āścyotana and seka are of the same three varieties as putapāka (18.45ab); ²⁸⁹ the proper dosages of the three varieties of āścyotana (18.45cd-46ab); seka should be applied for a period twice as long as that for putapāka (18.46cd-47ab); the parts of the day suitable to the application of ascyotana and seka (18.47cd); the signs of proper and improper application of seka are like those of tarpana (18.48ab); śirobasti cures very serious diseases and has the same effects as mūrdhataila²⁹⁰ (18.48cd-49ab); the technique of applying a śirobasti: a bladder filled with medicated oil or ghee is tightly fastened over the scalp of the patient; it should be kept there for a period ten times as long as has been prescribed for tarpana (18.49cd-51ab); the stage of the disease in which a collyrium (añ jana) should be applied (18.51cd-52ab); ²⁹¹ the three varieties of collyrium are: lekhana, ropana and prasadana ²⁹² (18.52cd); the tastes to be employed against the dosas in a lekhana collyrium (18.53); the effects of a lekhana collyrium (18. 54); a ropana collyrium should consist of drugs with an astringent or bitter taste and some oil; it restores the colour and invigorates the eyes (18.55); a prasadana collyrium should consist of drugs with a sweet taste and (much) oil; it soothes (prasadana) the dosas affecting vision and is also beneficial as an oleating agent (18.56); these collyria should be employed in the morning, evening or night, dependent on the dosa involved (18.57);²⁹³ the three forms of collyrium: gutikā (pill), rasa (= rasakriyā: inspissated juice) and cūrna (powder); ²⁹⁴ their strength decreases in the mentioned order (18.58); the sizes of lekhana, ropana and prasadana gutikas (18.59); the dose of a rasan jana 295

is the same as that of a varti²⁹⁶ (18.60ab); the doses of a collyrium in the form of a powder are two, three or four śalākās, for the lekhana, ropaņa and prasādana varieties respectively (18.60cd); the materials for the containers (bhājana)²⁹⁷ and the rods (śalāka) (for applying a collyrium) ²⁹⁸ (18.61–62ab); ²⁹⁹ requirements as to the form, measurements, etc., of a śalākā (18.62cd-63); the technique of applying a collyrium (18.64-65); technical errors to be avoided (18.66–67ab); after observing the proper action of a collyrium, the eye should be washed (praksālana) with water, and a pratyañ jana applied (18.67cd-68ab); contra-indications for a collyrium and the disorders resulting from neglect of these rules (8.68cd-69); complications (vyāpad) brought about by improper application of collyria (18.70-74ab); the treatment of these complications (18.74cd-75ab); signs indicating an adequate, excessive and deficient application of a lekhana collyrium; treatment in cases of excessive or deficient application (18.75cd-78); signs indicating an adequate or excessive application of prasadana and ropana collyria; treatment in cases of excessive application (18.79-81); deficient application of snehana (= prasādana) and ropana collyria produces no effect at all (18.82); the preparation of a cūrnāñ jana for royal use, which makes a king dear to all his subjects, invincible, and free from eye diseases (18.84-93);³⁰⁰ another collyrium, called bhadrodaya, fit for royal use (18.94–97); ³⁰¹ some more recipes for collyria (18.98–102); an analgesic collyrium (18,103-104); a collyrium for general use (18,105); pindāñ janas 302 should be prepared and used in the same way as rasakrivān janas (18.106).

Chapter nineteen is devoted to the management of injuries to the eye (nayanābhighāta) (and eye diseases in children).

The subjects dealt with are: general symptoms and treatment (19.3–4); the general measures should be employed when the injury is still fresh (sadyohata); ³⁰³ in a later stage, the treatment should be like that of abhisyanda; the pain of a minor trauma disappears by the application of warm breath (āsyabāṣpa) (19.5); prognostic features of eye injuries (19.6–7ab); the treatment of cases in which the eyeball is pushed inside or protruding (19.7cd–8ab); the seventy-six eye diseases described occur in both children and adults, but one additional and distinct disease, kukūṇaka, affects the eyelids of children only; it is caused by vitiated breastmilk, kapha, vāta, pitta, and blood (19.8cd–9ab); the symptoms and treatment of kukūṇaka (19.9cd–10); ³⁰⁴ treatment by the induction of vomiting (19.11–12); washing (paridhāvana), irrigation (avasecana) and eyedrops (āścyotana) in cases of kukūṇaka (19.13); collyria against kukūṇaka (19.14); gutikāñjanas (19.15); the treatment of śukra and kaphābhisyanda in children (19.16); the importance of a thorough study of the medical science (19.17–20).

Chapter twenty is devoted to the knowledge concerning diseases of the ears (karnaroga).

The subjects dealt with are: the twenty-eight diseases of the ears: ³⁰⁵ karṇaśū-la, ³⁰⁶ karṇapraṇāda, ³⁰⁷ bādhirya, ³⁰⁸ karṇakṣveḍa, ³⁰⁹ karṇasrāva, ³¹⁰ karṇakaṇḍū, ³¹¹ karṇavarcas, ³¹² kṛmikarṇa, ³¹³ pratīnāha, ³¹⁴ the two types of vidradhi, ³¹⁵ karṇapā-ka, ³¹⁶ pūtikarṇa, ³¹⁷ the four types of arśas, ³¹⁸ the seven types of arbuda, ³¹⁹ and the four types of śopha³²⁰ (20.3–5); the pathogenesis and symptomatology of karṇaśūla

(20.6), 321 karṇapraṇāda (20.7), 322 bādhirya (20.8), 323 karṇakṣveḍa (20.9), 324 karṇasrāva (20.10), karṇakaṇḍū (20.11ab), karṇavarcas (20.11cd), karṇapratīnāha (20.12), kṛmikarṇaka (20.13), the two types of vidradhi (20.14), karṇapāka (20.15ab), 325 and pūtikarṇa (20.15cd–16ab), 326 the features of arśas, 327 śopha 328 and arbuda 329 have already been described (20.16c-f).

Chapter twenty-one is devoted to the management of ear diseases. 330

The subjects dealt with are: general measures (21.3); the common treatment of karṇaśūla, karṇapraṇāda, bādhirya, and karṇakṣveḍa³³¹ (21.4–5); the treatment of karṇaśūla due to kapha and vāta by means of nādīsveda (21.6–7); piṇḍasveda in cases of karṇaśūla (21.8); a warm medicated oil against karṇaśūla (21.9–10); ³³² fumigation in cases of karṇaśūla (21.11); ³³³ dietary rules (21.12ab); the use of śatapākabalātaila ³³⁴ (21.12cd–13ab); several recipes for karṇapūraṇa³³⁵ (21.13cd–19); the preparation of dīpikātaila³³⁶ and its use in cases of karṇapūraṇa (21.20–22); recipes for karṇapūraṇa (21.23–26); ³³⁷ more recipes for karṇapūraṇa (21.27–33); the treatment of karṇasūla due to blood (21.34); the treatment of bādhirya (21.35–39ab); the general treatment of karṇasrāva, pūtikarṇa, and kṛmikarṇa (21.39cd–41ab); ³³⁸ the specific treatment of karṇasrāva (21.41cd–49ab), ³³⁹ pūtikarṇa (21.49cd–51ab), and kṛmikarṇa (21.51cd–53); the treatment of karṇaṣrāva (21.56), karṇapratīnāha (21.57), and karṇapāka (21.58ab); the removal of kīṭas, cerumen, and dirt from the auditory canal (21.58cd–59ab); the treatment of the remaining ear diseases has already been described (21.59cd).

Chapter twenty-two is devoted to the knowledge concerning diseases of the nose (nā-sāroga).

The subjects dealt with are: the enumeration of the thirty-one diseases affecting the nose (22.3-5); the symptoms of apīnasa, 341 which is caused by vāta and kapha, and has features in common with pratisyāya (22.6-7ab);³⁴² the pathogenesis and symptoms of pūtināsa (22.7cd-8ab), 343 nāsikāpāka (22.8cd-9ab), 344 nāsāraktapitta (22.9cd), 345 pūyarakta (22.10).³⁴⁶ the two types³⁴⁷ of ksavathu (22.11–13ab), ³⁴⁸ bhramśathu (22.13cd-14ab), 349 dīpta (22.14cd-15ab), 350 nāsāpratīnāha (22.15cd-16ab), 351 nāsāparisrāva (22.16cd-17ab), 352 and nāsāśosa (22.17cd-18ab); 353 nāsārśas 354 and nāsāsopha 355 are caused by each of the dosas separately and by the three dosas collectively (22.18cd); a seventh type of arbuda (of the nose), ³⁵⁶ caused by all the dosas, is added. according to the śalakya treatises, (to the usual six types)357 (22.19ab); pratiśyaya, a disease of five types, will be described later 358 (22.19cd); thus, the thirty-one diseases of the nose have been described (22,20ab); a big mass, enclosed within a capsule (kośa), and present within the nasal passages, is called an arbuda (22.20cd); nāsāśopha possesses all the characteristics of sopha, but is confined to the nasal passages: nāsārsas should be diagnosed according to the characteristics of arsas as described in the Nidānasthāna³⁵⁹ (22.21).

Chapter twenty-three is devoted to the management of diseases of the nose.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of apīnasa and pūtinasya³⁶⁰ (23.3–5ab),

nāsāpāka (23.5cd-6ab), ³⁶¹ raktapitta and pūyarakta (23.6cd-7ab), ³⁶² kṣavathu³⁶³ and bhraṃśathu (23.7cd-8ab), dīpta (23.8cd), nāsānāha³⁶⁴ (23.9), nāsāsrāva³⁶⁵ (23.10), and nāsāśoṣa (23.11); ³⁶⁶ the remaining diseases of the nose³⁶⁷ should be treated as described for diseases of the nose in general (23.12). ³⁶⁸

Chapter twenty-four is devoted to the management of pratisyāya. 369

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology of pratiśyāya (24.3); its pathogenesis (24.4)³⁷⁰ and prodromes (24.5); ³⁷¹ the symptoms of pratiśyāya due to vāta (24.6–7ab), ³⁷² pitta (24.7cd–8), ³⁷³ kapha (24.9–10ab), ³⁷⁴ all three doṣas (24.10cd–11), and blood (24.12–14ab); ³⁷⁵ the symptoms of duṣṭapratiśyāya, more difficult to cure than pratiśyāya (24.14cd–16ab); ³⁷⁶ complications of pratiśyāya (24.16cd–17); the treatment of all types of pratiśyāya (24.18–21); the general treatment of pīnasa³⁷⁷ (24.22–23); the treatment of pīnasa caused by a combination of vāta and kapha (24.24); the treatment of pratiśyāya due to vāta (24.25–26ab), pitta and blood (24.26cd–30ab), kapha (24.30cd–33), and concerted action of all the dosas (24.34–42). ³⁷⁸

Chapter twenty-five is devoted to the knowledge of diseases of the head (śiroroga).

The subjects dealt with are: the eleven diseases of the head: those caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas, blood, kṣaya, and parasites (krimi), and the diseases called sūryāvarta, anantavāta, ardhāvabhedaka, and śaṅkhaka (25.3–4); the symptomatology of śiroroga due to vāta (25.5), ³⁷⁹ pitta (25.6), ³⁸⁰ kapha (25.7), ³⁸¹ all three doṣas (25.8ab), ³⁸² and blood (25.8cd); the aetiology and symptomatology of śiroroga caused by kṣaya (decrease) of fatty tissue (vasā) and balāsa (= kapha) ³⁸³ (25.9–10ab); the symptoms of śiroroga caused by parasites (25.10cd–11ab); ³⁸⁴ the symptoms of sūryāvarta, ³⁸⁵ caused by all the doṣas together and very difficult to cure (25.11cd–13ab); ³⁸⁶ the symptoms of anantavāta, ³⁸⁷ caused by all three doṣas collectively (25.13cd–15ab); ³⁸⁸ the symptoms of ardhāvabheda, ³⁸⁹ caused by all three doṣas collectively (25.15cd–16ab); ³⁹⁰ the symptoms of śaṅkhaka, ³⁹¹ which is caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, and blood, and is incurable (25.16cd–18). ³⁹²

Chapter twenty-six is devoted to the management of diseases of the head.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of śiroroga caused by vāta (26.3–11), ³⁹³ pitta ³⁹⁴ and blood (16.12–18ab), kapha (26.18cd–23), ³⁹⁵ all three doṣas (26.24), ³⁹⁶ kṣaya (26.25–26ab), and parasites (26.26cd–30ab); ³⁹⁷ the general treatment of sūryāvarta (26.30cd–31ab) and ardhabhedaka ³⁹⁸ (26.31cd); the specific treatment of sūryāvarta ³⁹⁹ and ardhāvabhedaka ⁴⁰⁰ (26.32–35); the same measures are useful in śiroroga due to kapha (26.36ab); the treatment of anantavāta (26.36cd–38ab) ⁴⁰¹ and śaṅkhaka (26.38cd–41); ⁴⁰² general rules for the treatment of diseases of the head (26.42–44ab); ⁴⁰³ thus, the aetiology and treatment of the seventy-six diseases of the eyes, twenty-eight diseases of the ears, thirty-one diseases of the nose, eleven diseases of the head, and sixty-seven diseases of the mouth, oral cavity and throat ⁴⁰⁴ have been dealt with; these are the diseases of the upper main part of the body (uttamāṅga), described according to their number, characteristics and reatment (16.44cd–46).

Chapter twenty-seven is devoted to the knowledge about the specific features (\bar{a} kṛti) of the nine grahas. 405

The names of these nine grahas are: Skanda, 406 Skandāpasmāra, Śakunī, Revatī, Pūtanā, 407 Andhapūtanā, Śītapūtanā, Mukhamaṇḍikā, and Naigameṣa, also called Pitṛgraha (27.4–5). 408

These grahas hurt children when wet-nurse or mother do not observe the prescribed code of conduct, when cleanliness is neglected, when auspicious rituals (mangala) are not performed, and when the children themselves are upset (trasta), anxious (hṛṣṭa), scolded (tarjita), or beaten (tādita).

The aim of the grahas is to obtain worship (pūjā). They possess supernatural powers (aiśvarya), can assume various forms, and enter a child's body without being seen (27. 6–7ab). Their characteristic signs will be described according to tradition (27.7cd).

The chapter proceeds with descriptions of the characteristic features of children afflicted by Skanda (27.8),⁴⁰⁹ Skandāpasmāra⁴¹⁰ (27.9),⁴¹¹ Śakunī (27.10),⁴¹² Revatī (27.11),⁴¹³ Pūtanā (27.12),⁴¹⁴ Andhapūtanā (27.13),⁴¹⁵ Śītapūtanā (27.14),⁴¹⁶ Mukhamandikā (27.15),⁴¹⁷ and Naigamesa (27.16).⁴¹⁸

The signs indicating incurability or curability are mentioned (27.17–18ab). The general rules regarding treatment are dealt with; these rules consist largely of ritual acts, accompanied by a manter (27.18cd–21).

Chapter twenty-eight deals with the treatment of children attacked by Skanda.

Measures described are: sprinkling (parişecana) with a particular decoction (28.3), inunction (abhyanga) with a medicated oil (28.4), the oral administration of a medicated ghee (28.5), fumigation (28.6), the wearing of particular garlands (28.7), the offering (bali) of particular objects to Skanda (28.8), the performance of a ritual (28.9), and the recitation of particular mantras (28.10–14).

Chapter twenty-nine deals with the treatment of afflictions caused by Skandāpasmāra. Measures described are: sprinkling with a decoction (29.3), inunction with a medicated oil (29.4), the oral administration of medicated ghees (29.5), fumigation (29.6), the wearing of particular garlands (29.7ab), offerings and rituals (29.7cd-8), and a mantra (29.9)

Chapter thirty describes the following measures against afflictions caused by Śakunī: sprinkling with a decoction (30.3), inunction (30.4ab), a plaster (pradeha) (30.4cd–5ab), the powders (cūrṇa) and beneficial articles of diet used in the treatment of sores (vraṇa) (30.5cd), the same fumigations as those against Skanda (30.6ab), (the wearing of) particular drugs (as charms) (30.6cd–7ab), offerings (bali) and a ritual bath (30.7cd–8), the administration of the same medicated ghee as that against Skanda (30.9ab), the worship (pūjā) of Śakunī by offering auspicious flowers (30.9cd), and the recitation of mantras (30.10–11).

Chapter thirty-one describes the following measures against afflictions caused by Revatī: sprinkling with decoctions (31.3), inunction (31.4), the administration of a med-

icated ghee (31.5), a plaster (31.6ab), fumigation (31.6cd–7ab), the wearing of a particular necklace (rucaka) (31.7cd–8ab), offerings and a ritual bath (31.8cd–9), and the recitation of mantras (31.10–11).⁴¹⁹

Chapter thirty-two deals with measures against afflictions caused by Pūtanā. They consist of: sprinkling (32.3), inunction (32.4), a medicated ghee (32.5), fumigations (32.6–7), the wearing of particular drugs (as charms) (32.8ab), offerings and a ritual bath (32.8cd–9), and the recitation of mantras (32.10–11).

Chapter thirty-three describes the following measures against afflictions caused by Andhapūtanā: sprinkling with a decoction (33.3ab), inunction (33.3cd-4ab), a medicated ghee (33.4cd-5ab), a plaster (pradeha) (33.5cd), fumigation (33.6), 420 drugs to be worn (33.7ab), offerings and a ritual bath (33.7cd-8), and the recitation of a mantra (33.9).

Chapter thirty-four describes the following measures against afflictions caused by Śītapūtanā: sprinkling (34.3), inunction (34.4), a medicated ghee (34.5), fumigation (34.6), particular drugs to be worn (34.7ab), offerings and aritualbath (34.7cd−8), and the recitation of a mantra (34.9).

Chapter thirty-five describes the following measures against afflictions caused by Mukhamaṇḍikā:⁴²¹ sprinkling (35.3), inunction (35.4), a medicated ghee (35.5), fumigation (35.6ab), the wearing of the tongues of particular animals (as charms) (35.6cd),⁴²² offerings (35.7–8ab),⁴²³ and a ritual bath accompanied by a mantra (35.8cd–9).

Chapter thirty-six describes the following measures against afflictions caused by Naigameşa: sprinkling (36.3), inunction (36.4), medicated ghees (36.5), the wearing of particular drugs (as charms) (36.6ab), the same utsādana (massage with a medicated oil) as for disorders caused by Skandāpasmāra (36.6cd), fumigation (36.7), a fumigation to be employed against afflictions caused by the nine grahas (36.8), offerings and a ritual bath (36.9–10), and the recitation of a mantra (36.11).

Chapter thirty-seven is about the origin (utpatti) of the grahas (and related subjects).

The nine grahas who afflict children are endowed with radiance (śrī), possess a divine body, and are either female or male (37.3). They were created by Kṛttikā, ⁴²⁴ Umā, ⁴²⁵ Agni ⁴²⁶ and Śūlin⁴²⁷ in order to guard the newborn Guha, ⁴²⁸ although, while staying in the Śaravaṇa, ⁴²⁹ he was protected by his own fiery energy (ātmatejas) (37. 4). The female grahas described are of a rājasa or tāmasa character and partake of the nature of Gaṅgā, ⁴³⁰ Umā and the Kṛttikās (37.5).

Naigameşa, who has the face of a ram (meşa), was created by Pārvatī⁴³¹ as the protector and companion of Guha (37.6); Skandāpasmāra, also called Viśākha, and glowing like fire, was created by Agni as a companion of Skanda⁴³² (37.7); Skanda, also called Kumāra, was created by Tripurāri (37.8); ⁴³³ this god, born from Rudra and Agni,

is frolicsome like a child and cannot possibly be intent on bad actions; it is therefore lack of knowledge that makes some medical authorities (dehacintaka),⁴³⁴ misled by the similarity of the names, assume that the graha called Skanda is identical with the deity called Kumāra (i.e., Skanda) (37.9–10).

A mythological story follows, telling that the grahas, who waited upon Skanda, the chief of the heavenly army, asked him for means of subsistence; Skanda referred this question to Siva, who gave the grahas, as their sphere of influence, the children of parents who do not behave properly; this explains that the grahas, eager for ample subsistence and worship, afflict children (37.11–20).

Afflictions by grahas are difficult to cure; disabilities (vaikalya), and even death, result from an attack by the graha Skanda, who is the most dreadful among them (37. 21–22ab). Attacks by other grahas are also incurable if they present all the symptoms (37.22cd).

Chapter thirty-eight is devoted to the management of gynaecological disorders (yonivyāpad).⁴³⁵

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology and pathogenesis of yonivyāpad; the general causes of the twenty types of yonivyāpad, consisting of improper behaviour (mithyācāra), corrupted ārtava, bījadosa, and fate (daiva) (38.3–6ab);⁴³⁶ the types of voriivyāpad arising from vāta are: 437 udāvartā. 438 vandhvā. 439 viplutā. 440 pariplutā. 441 and vātalā; 442 those arising from pitta are: rudhiraksarā, 443 vāminī, 444 sramsinī, 445 putraghnī, 446 and pittalā; 447 those arising from kapha are: atyānandā, 448 kaminī, 449 the two kinds of carana, 450 and ślesmala; 451 those arising from all three dosas are: sandā, 452 phalinī, 453 mahatī, 454 sūcīvaktrā, 455 and sarvajā 456 (38.6cd-9ab); the characteristics of the vāta types; other painful sensations (vedanā) due to vāta are also present (38.9cd-11); the characteristics of the pitta types, which also present other symptoms due to pitta (38.12-14); the characteristics of the kapha types, which present other symptoms attributable to kapha (38.15-17); the characteristics of the types caused by all the dosas, which also present other symptoms caused by them and which are incurable (38.18-20); general treatment (38.21);⁴⁵⁷ the treatment of yonivyāpad due to vāta (38.22-24ab), 458 pitta (38.24cd-26), 459 and kapha (38. 27-29ab); 460 some general prescriptions (38.29cd-30); other procedures that may be employed (38.31-32ab); disorders caused by immature and premature labour (apapra jātāroga) should be treated as described (38.32cd).

Chapter thirty-nine is devoted to fevers and their management. 461

The chapter opens with questions by Susruta and his fellow students to Dhanvantari, who is requested to give a more detailed account of the complications (upadrava) occurring in patients with sores (vrana), a subject discussed only briefly in the preceding sections of the treatise (39.3–7). Dhanvantari, who complies, begins with an exposition on fever (jvara), because this is the king among the host of diseases (39.8). 462

The subjects dealt with in the first part of the chapter are: fever owes its origin to the fire of Rudra's wrath; it afflicts all living creatures and is known by different names (dependent on the type of creature or substance affected) (39.9);⁴⁶³ as a disor-

der that may take possession of a living being from birth until death, 464 it is regarded as the king among all diseases (39.10); only gods and human beings are able to endure fever, while all other living creatures perish by it (39.11-13ab); the main characteristics of fever consist of the simultaneous occurrence of absence of perspiration (svedāvarodha), a general sense of heat (samtāpa), and an ache of all the parts of the body (sarvāngagrahana) (39.13cd-14ab); 465 fever has various causes and is of eight types: caused by one of the dosas singly, by a combination of two dosas, by all the dosas collectively, and by exogenous (agantu) factors (39.14cd-15ab); 466 the pathogenesis of fever (39.15cd-19ab); 467 aetiological factors (39.19cd-22); 468 the pathophysiology of the rise of temperature and the obstruction to the flow of perspiration (39.23-24); 469 the general and specific prodromes (39.25-28);⁴⁷⁰ the symptoms of fever due to vata (39. 29-30),⁴⁷¹ pitta (39.31-32),⁴⁷² kapha (39.33-34),⁴⁷³ and concerted action (samnipāta) of the dosas (39.35-38c);⁴⁷⁴ the symptoms of a specific type of samnipata fever, called abhinyāsa; 475 others call it hataujas 476 (39.38-41ab); a samnipāta fever is difficult to cure; according to others, it is incurable (39.41cd);⁴⁷⁷ a samnipāta fever associated with sleepiness should be known as abhinyasa, associated with decrease (of bodily constituents) as hatau jas, and associated with inertia of the limbs (samnyastagātra) as samnyāsa (39.42);⁴⁷⁸ the symptomatology of a fever characterized by an obstruction (nirodha) to oias, caused by aggravation of pitta and vata (39.43-45ab);⁴⁷⁹ (a samnipāta fever) aggravates again on the seventh, tenth, or twelfth day, followed by a favourable turn (prasama) or death (39.45cd-46ab); 480 the symptoms of fevers due to the combined action of two dosas: 481 vāta and pitta, vāta and kapha, pitta and kapha (39.46cd-50);⁴⁸² even a very small amount of a dosa may increase in patients, released from fever and still weak, when they indulge in unwholesome diet and behaviour; this dosa, reaching the seats (of kapha) successively, staying at each seat for one day and night, and ultimately arriving at the āmāśaya, causes the fevers called satata, anyedyuska (quotidian), tryākhya (tertian), cāturtha (quartan), and pralepaka (39. 51-53); 483 the slow fever called pralepaka, which leads to desiccation of the elements of the body; it is very troublesome and extremely difficult to cure (39.54);⁴⁸⁴ reversed types of irregular (visama) 485 fevers arise when the dosa 486 stays in two, three, or four seats of kapha; 487 these fevers are difficult to cure (39.55); some assume that an outside factor or inherent nature (svabhāva) produces irregular fevers; usually, however, an exogenous (agantu) factor is secondarily involved (anubandha) in an irregular fever (39.56);488 trtīyaka and caturthaka fever are characterized by a predominance of vata; 489 the fever occurring in lowlands at the foot of mountains (aupatyaka), 490 as well as the fever caused by (the abuse of) alcoholic drinks, are due to pitta; kapha is the predominant dosa in the fevers called pralepaka and vātabalāsaka; ⁴⁹¹ irregular fevers with fainting (mūrchā) as a secondary development (anubandha) usually arise from a combination of two dosas (39.57-58); kapha and vata, staying in the skin, generate a fever beginning with shivering; later, after the pacification of these two (dosas), pitta brings about a burning sensation; pitta, staying in the skin, causes an intense burning sensation at the onset (of fever); later, after the pacification of pitta, shivering arises due to kapha and vāta; these two fevers, beginning with a burning sensation or shivering, are caused by a combination of two dosas; out of the two, the fever beginning

6 Uttaratantra 315

with a burning sensation is troublesome and difficult to cure (39.59-61); the same applies to protracted (prasakta) fevers of traumatic or mental origin (39.62ab); an irregular fever may become manifest during any of the six parts of day and night; actually, it never leaves the body completely, as is evident from symptoms like languor (glani), a feeling of heaviness, and loss of weight (39.62cd-64ab); during periods without bouts of fever, the disease appears to be gone, but this is due to its being hidden within the bodily elements and to other factors; indulgence in unwholesome diet and behaviour makes it flare up again, and causes a new attack when one of the bodily elements has been reached (39.64cd-66); 492 satata (continuous) fever resides in rasa and blood, anyedyuska in muscular tissue, trtīyaka in fatty tissue, cāturthaka in the bones and bone marrow; 493 the last mentioned fever is serious, may terminate fatally, and brings on a mixture of disorders (39.67-68ab); some are of the opinion that irregular fevers arise from possession (abhisanga) by bhūtas (39.68cd); ⁴⁹⁴ the fever that continues for a period of seven, ten or twelve days is known as samtata; 495 satataka appears twice in a day and night; anyedyuska appears once within twenty-four hours, trtīyaka on alternate days, and caturthaka on every fourth day 496 (39.69-71ab); the appearance and subsidence of bouts of fever caused by the dosas, which are impelled by vāta, are compared to the tidal movements of the sea (39.71cd-75ab); traumatic fevers should be treated according to the dosa(s) involved (39.75cd-76ab);⁴⁹⁷ the symptoms of fever caused by poisoning (39.76cd-77ab); ⁴⁹⁸ the symptoms of fever provoked by the smell of herbs (osadhīgandha) (39.77cd). 499 the symptoms of fevers caused by sexual desire (kāma) (39.78), fear and grief (39.79ab), magic (abhicāra) and curses (abhisāpa) (39.79cd), and possession by malevolent beings (bhūtābhisanga) (39.80ab); 500 vāta, when excited by fatigue, wasting (of bodily constituents) or a trauma, may pervade the whole body and give rise to a violent fever (39.80cd-81ab); fevers resulting from other diseases, vidāha, 501 exogenous factors, etc., do not present other symptoms than those which are characteristic of one or more of the dosas (39.81cd-82);502 the symptoms presented by fevers after having reached and affected rasa, blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, bones, bone marrow, and semen (39.83-90ab);⁵⁰³ the involvement of one or more of the dosas in these fevers should be ascertained by means of the signs characteristic of them (39.90cd-92ab); the characteristics of a deep-seated (gambhīra) fever (39.92cd-93ab); 504 features indicating incurability of a fever (39.93cd-94ab); 505 slight, moderate and severe (excitement of the) dosas leads to attacks of fever during three, seven or twelve days; the possibility of successful treatment diminishes in the mentioned order (39.94cd-95ab); fever is like kāla (time as a devouring factor), Yama (i.e., the god of death), nivati (fate) and death itself; someone who has got rid of it should be regarded as having gained rebirth (39.95cd-96ab).

The second part of the chapter, devoted to treatment, deals with the following subjects: treatment during the prodromal stage (39.97–99); the difference between symptoms and prodromes is like that between fire and smoke (39.100ab); fasting (apatarpana or langhana) is the most important therapeutic measure after manifestation of the symptoms, but emetics should be administered when the dosa stays in the āmā-saya, the proper duration of fasting; contra-indications; the beneficial effects of fasting; the signs of adequate and excessive fasting (39.100cd–106ab); 506 the indications for

administering warm water (39.106cd-108ab);⁵⁰⁷ indications for a particular cooled down decoction (39.108cd-109ab);⁵⁰⁸ the antipyretic effects of a medicated gruel (peyā) (39.109cd-110ab); 509 general indications for kaṣāyas; kaṣāyas which are useful in fevers due to vata, pitta, kapha, or a combination of two dosas; contra-indications for kasāyas (39.110cd-114); 510 some general characteristics of fevers with immature (āma) and mature (pakva) dosas (39.115a-d); 511 the characteristics of maturity of the dosas, which means that medicinal treatment may be initiated (39.115e-h); a divergent view on the recognition of maturity (39.116ab); the characteristics of an inmature fever (āmajvara) (39.116cd-119ab);⁵¹² medicinal treatment may begin seven days after the onset of fever according to some authorities, whereas others hold the view that this period should cover ten days (39.119cd-120ab);⁵¹³ exceptions to this rule (39.120cd-121ab); special directions for eliminative treatment in immature and mature fevers (39.121cd-125); 514 the preliminary treatment (prākkarman) should successively consist of: emesis (vamana), an asthapana enema, purgation (virecana), and evacuation of the head (sirovirecana) (39.126); emesis is the most important measure in fevers caused by kapha, purgation in those caused by pitta, an enema in those caused by vata, evacuation of the head when the head is full of phlegm (39. 127-129); treatments for special cases (39.130-132); the treatment of residual dosas after eliminative measures (39.133-134ab); fasting is always to be recommended in strong patients (39.134cd); dietary rules for patients with various types of fever (39.135-156ab);⁵¹⁵ things to be avoided by a patient with fever (39.156cd-159);⁵¹⁶ rules for a patient who has just recovered from fever (39,160–162); 517 the importance of bed rest during fever (39.163); indications for purificatory measures after subsidence of a fever (39.164); an emaciated patient with fever should never rashly be given a bath (39.165); all fevers should be treated with measures counteracting their causes (39.166); women who get fever due to an abnormal delivery or during lactation should be given a treatment that appears the dosa(s) involved (39.167); appearing (samśamanīva) kasāvas to be employed against fever by vāta (39,168-175ab) and pitta (39.175cd-178); preparations against complaints associated with fever due to pitta, such as thirst, a burning sensation, 518 desiccation of mouth and throat, and a bad taste in the mouth (vairasya) (39, 179-186ab); kasayas against fever caused by kapha (39.186cd-191), kapha and vāta (39.192-195ab), pitta and kapha (39.195cd-199ab), vāta and pitta (39.199cd-201ab), and all three dosas (39.201cd-211ab); the treatment of irregular (visama) fevers (39.211cd-218ab); a medicated ghee against chronic (iīrna) fever and other disorders (39.218cd-221ab); the preparation and indications of gudūcyādighrta (39.221cd-223ab), ⁵¹⁹ kalaśyādighrta (39.223cd-226ab), patolyādighrta (39.226cd-229ab), kalyānakaghrta (39.229cd-234ab), 520 mahākalyānakaghrta (39.234cd-240ab), 521 pañcagavyaghrta (39.240cd-242) 522 and its varieties (39.243-244ab), pañcāvika-, pañcā ja-, pañcamahisa- and caturustraghrta (39.244c-f), triphalādighrta (39,245-249), a second variety of patolādighrta (39,250-254ab), 523 pañcasāra (39.254cd-255), lāksātaila (39.256), and ksīrivrksāditaila (39.257-258); treatments to be employed in particular kinds of irregular fever (39.259-261); 524 furnigations for irregular fevers (39,262-263ab); a collyrium (39,263cd); the medicated ghees mentioned in the chapter on the treatment of udara 525 and the ajita ghee

6 Uttaratantra

mentioned in the Kalpa(sthāna)⁵²⁶ cure (irregular) fevers (39,264); a fever arising from possession by malevolent beings should be treated with bandha, 527 avesana 528 and worship, as taught in the chapters on bhūtavidyā; 529 a fever of mental origin requires mental treatment (39.265); 530 the treatment of fever due to fatigue and wasting (39.266ab), curses and magic (39.266cd), ⁵³¹ portents (utpāta) and bad influences of planets (grahapīdana) (39.267ab); the treatment of fever resulting from a traumatic injury (39.267cd-268ab),⁵³² the inhalation of the smell of herbs, or the ingestion of poisonous substances (39.268cd-269); the diet beneficial to patients with an irregular fever (39.270ab); these patients should also pay homage to brāhmanas, cows, Īśāna 533 and Ambikā⁵³⁴ (39.270cd);⁵³⁵ external measures to be employed against the feeling of coldness in patients with fever (39,271–281);⁵³⁶ internal and external treatment when a burning sensation is the predominant symptom (39.282–294ab);⁵³⁷ pitta should be eliminated first in fevers caused by concerted action of the dosas (39.294cd-295ab); the general treatment of complications of fever (39.295cd-296ab); the specific treatment of particular complications (39.296cd-305); the treatment of mature pitta fever, raktapitta which moves upwards, and tremors (vepathu) (39,306-307ab), fever by kapha and vāta (39.307cd), giddiness (39.308ab), fever due to vāta (39.308cd-309ab), fever due to pitta (39.309cd-312ab), a burning sensation (39.312cd), and fever due to kapha (39.313-315ab); the use of fatty substances (39.315cd-316); medicated ghees to be used in fevers caused by pitta, kapha, and combinations of dosas (39.317); the treatment of residual dosas (39.318-319); ghee should be administered in all fevers after the lapse of twelve days (39.320); the state of the patient during remissions (39.321); 538 the signs of release from fever (39.322); 539 the dangers inherent in fever (39.323 - 324), 540

Chapter forty is devoted to atīsāra (diarrhoea) and its management. 541

The subjects dealt with are: aetiological factors (40.3-5);⁵⁴² pathogenesis (40. 6);⁵⁴³ the six types of diarrhoea: caused by vata, pitta, kapha, all the dosas, grief (śoka), and āma (40.7ab);⁵⁴⁴ the rejection of the view that diarrhoea is of many types; Kāśirāja (= Dhanvantari) proclaims that these diverse types are related to stages (avasthā) of the involvement of the dosas (40.7cd-8ab); the prodromes (40.8cd-9ab); 545 the symptoms of diarrhoea due to vata, 546 pitta, 547 kapha, 548 and all the dosas (40.9cd-13ab);⁵⁴⁹ the pathogenesis and symptomatology of diarrhoea caused by grief; this disorder is troublesome and extremely difficult to cure (40.13cd-15ab);⁵⁵⁰ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of the āma type; the characteristics of āma and pakva stools (40.15-18); 551 types of diarrhoea that should not be accepted for treatment (40.19-21);552 all types of diarrhoea exhibit the features of one or more of the dosas, including those types which are due to poorly digested fatty substances, visūcikā, various types of disorders of digestion, poisoning, haemorrhoids, and parasites (40.22-23);⁵⁵³ careful distinction of the āma and pakva stages is essential in the treatment of diarrhoea (40.24); fasting (langhana) is the first therapeutic measure to be taken, followed by the administration of gruels (yavāgū), etc., prepared with pācana (maturation-promoting) drugs (40.25); the treatment of the āma stage (40.26–28); 554 contra-indications for constipating (samgrahana) measures; disorders resulting from

neglect of these contra-indications (40.29-30); the treatment of patients passing stools frequently, with difficulty, and in small quantities, associated with piercing pain (40.31); the treatment of watery diarrhoea (40.32); the treatment of patients repeatedly passing small amounts of hard stools, associated with piercing pain (40.33); fasting and maturation-promoting preparations should always be employed first (40.34ab); twenty prescriptions against āmātīsāra (40.34cd-46); more prescriptions against this type of diarrhoea (40.47-50); more recipes against diarrhoea (40.51-57); the treatment of the āma and pakva varieties of diarrhoea caused by pitta (40.58-75ab); 555 the treatment of piercing pain (sūla) after the elimination of āma (40.75cd-77ab); 556 the treatment of diarrhoea due to the three dosas (40.77cd-78ab); 557 the treatment of piercing pain associated with diarrhoea (40.78cd-80ab); indications for the treatment with putapākas (40.81ab); various putapākas (40.81cd-89ab); various other prescriptions (40.89cd-99ab); the use of (medicated) milk in diarrhoea (40.99cd-101); 558 the use of purgatives and medicated ghees (40.102); medicated ghees against bloody diarrhoea (40.103-104ab) and diarrhoea due to all the dosas (40.104cd-105); indications for emetics (40.106); cases in which particular enemas are useful (40.107-111); the treatment of weakness of (the sphincters of) the anus (gudadaurbalya) in diarrhoea of long standing (40.112);⁵⁵⁹ dietary instructions (40.113-115); the pathogenesis and symptoms of bloody diarrhoea (raktātīsāra)⁵⁶⁰ (40.116-117ab);⁵⁶¹ its treatment (40.117cd-129); ⁵⁶² the treatment of the stage of diarrhoea in which the stools have become bound (saktavis) (40.130-131), are frothy (phenila) (40.132-134ab), or slight in quantity (40.134cd-137); the aetiology and pathogenesis of pravāhikā (40.138); 563 the symptoms of pravāhika⁵⁶⁴ due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and blood (40.139–140ab); ⁵⁶⁵ its general treatment (40.140cd-141ab); 566 specific treatments (40.141cd-156); the general treatment of diarrhoea (40.157-158); the treatment of diarrhoea caused by (an excess of) dry or fatty articles of diet, by fear (bhaya), grief, poisons, haemorrhoids, and parasites (40.159-160ab);⁵⁶⁷ the treatment of complications (40.160cd); when more dosas are involved, pitta should be counteracted first in diarrhoea and fever, but vāta in all other diseases (40.161);⁵⁶⁸ the signs of cure in cases of diarrhoea (40.162); ⁵⁶⁹ diseases in general are caused by karman, by the dosas, or by a combination of both; the ways in which these groups of diseases may subside or be cured (40.163–166ab); the aetiology of grahanīroga⁵⁷⁰ (40.166cd–168); ⁵⁷¹ the organ called grahanī is the same as the pittadharā kalā, situated between āmāśava and pakvāśaya (40.169);⁵⁷² grahanī and digestive fire are closely connected, because the latter resides in the grahanī; corruption of the digestive fire leads for that reason inevitably to corruption of the grahanī (40.170); 573 general features of grahanīroga (40.171-172); ⁵⁷⁴ the prodromes (40.173); ⁵⁷⁵ the general symptoms (40.174-175); symptoms due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and all three dosas (40.176-177); 576 treatment measures (40.178-182ab); 577 treatment of the complications (40.182cd).

Chapter forty-one is devoted to dessication (śosa) ⁵⁷⁸ and its management. ⁵⁷⁹ Šosa is described as an illness following upon several (other) diseases and preceding many other ones, difficult to be diagnosed and to be restrained, and therefore of a very serious character (41.3). It is called sosa because it dries up (samsosana) the rasa

and the other elements of the body, and kṣaya because it leads to decline of bodily functions; some call it rājayakṣman because Candramas (i.e., the lunar deity) was the first one to suffer from it (41.4–5). 580 Some regard this disease as arising from each of the three doṣas separately, but it should be considered to be one single entity caused by concerted action of the dosas (41.6–8ab). 581

The next subjects of the first part of the chapter are: the aetiological factors (41. 8cd-10); ⁵⁸² the six main general symptoms (41.11); ⁵⁸³ the eleven symptoms due to the doṣas (41.12-13); ⁵⁸⁴ the characteristics of incurable cases (41.14-15); ⁵⁸⁵ according to a divergent view, the causes of śoṣa are: (excessive) sexual intercourse, grief, old age, (excessive) physical exercise, travelling, fasting, sores, and uraḥṣṣata (41.16); the symptoms of śoṣa due to (excessive) sexual intercourse (41.17), ⁵⁸⁶ grief (41.18), old age (41.19-20), travelling (41.21), ⁵⁸⁷ excessive physical exercise (41.22), ⁵⁸⁸ and sores (41.23); the causes and symptoms of uraḥṣṣata ⁵⁸⁹ (41.24-26ab); ⁵⁹⁰ some are of the opinion that śoṣa may be brought about by a variety of causes; ⁵⁹¹ this view should be rejected, because the disorders described by these authorities do not present the complete set of eleven symptoms and are actually states with decrease (kṣaya) of one of the dhātus; these conditions and their treatment have already been described ⁵⁹² (41. 26cd-28); the prodromes of śoṣa (41.29-30); ⁵⁹³ cases to be rejected and accepted for treatment (41.31-32ab). ⁵⁹⁴

The subjects of the second part of the chapter are: general principles of treatment (41.32cd-35); ⁵⁹⁵ treatment with meat preparations and the accompanying diet (41.36–39); ⁵⁹⁶ treatment with medicated ghees (41.40–54); ⁵⁹⁷ the (satpalaka)ghrta, employed against plīhodara, as well as the three other medicated ghees, described in the chapter on udara, ⁵⁹⁸ are also useful (41.55ab); complications like svaravaikṛta (affections of the voice), etc., should be treated according to the methods described (41.55cd); ⁵⁹⁹ treatment with various products of a goat (41.56); various prescriptions (41.57); things to be avoided by a patient and rules regarding his behaviour (41.58). ⁶⁰⁰

Chapter forty-two is devoted to gulma⁶⁰¹ and its management.⁶⁰²

The subjects dealt with in the first part of this chapter⁶⁰³ are: the aetiology and pathogenesis of gulma, a disease of five types (42.3); ⁶⁰⁴ a gulma is a round (vrtta) lump (granthi), located between the cardiac region and the bladder, mobile (saṃcārin) or immobile (acala), and increasing or decreasing in size (42.4); the five locations of gulma are the two sides of the chest (pārśva), the cardiac region, the umbilical region, and the region of the bladder (42.5ab); ⁶⁰⁵ this disease is called gulma because it originates from hidden vāta, possesses deep roots, and covers a large space, thus being like a shrub (gulma); since it consists of an accumulation (of the doṣas) themselves and develops like a bubble in water, moving about within (the abdominal cavity), it does not reach the stage of maturation (pāka) ⁶⁰⁶ (42.5cd–7ab); gulma may arise from each of the doṣas singly or by all the doṣas collectively; ⁶⁰⁷ an additional type, caused by blood, occurs in women (42.7cd–8ab); the general prodromes of gulma (42.8cd–9); ⁶⁰⁸ the symptoms of gulma due to vāta (42.10), ⁶⁰⁹ pitta (42.11), ⁶¹⁰ kapha (42.12), ⁶¹¹ and all the doṣas (42.13ab); ⁶¹² the aetiology and pathogenesis of raktagulma, due to blood and only occurring in women; its general features are like those of gulma

due to pitta; signs pointing to pregnancy are also present, but the abdomen does not swell as much and movements of the child are absent; it should be treated after the term of (a normal) pregnancy (42.13cd-15);613 the treatment of gulma due to vāta (42.16), pitta (42.17), kapha (42.18), concerted action of the dosas (42.19ab), and blood (42.19cd-21);614 anuvāsana enemas to be employed in cases of gulma caused by vāta, pitta, or kapha (42.22-23);615 medicated ghees against gulma⁶¹⁶ arising from vāta: a ghee prepared with sadangaghrta (42.24), citrakādighrta (42. 25-26), 617 hingvādighrta (42.27-28), 618 dādhikaghrta (42.29-30), 619 rasonādighrta (42.31-33), 620 and another ghee (42.34-35); ghees against gulma due to pitta or blood (42.36–37ab) and kapha (42.37cd–38); the treatment of gulma with involvement of all the dosas (42.39-40ab); caustic preparations for internal use (42.40cd-46ab); ⁶²¹ the preparation of vrścīvyādyarista⁶²² and pāthādigutikā, together with their indications (42.46cd-52ab); indications for bloodletting (42.52cd-53ab); 623 useful liquid preparations (42.53cd-54ab), peyas, and khalas (42.54cd-55ab); the treatment of cases with constipation (baddhavarcas) as a prominent symptom; various types of sudation (sveda) are indicated to relieve this symptom (42.55cd-56ab); 624 purgation in patients suffering from gulma (42.56cd-57ab); various therapeutic measures (42.57cd-59ab); suppositories (varti) against constipation (varconirodha) in patients suffering from gulma (42.59cd-60ab); some special prescriptions (42.60cd-66ab); śūla (piercing pain) as a complication of gulma; its characteristics and the symptoms produced by it (42.66cd-68); prescriptions useful in sūla due to a single dosa, two dosas, and all three dosas (42.69-73ab); other measures against śūla in cases of gulma (42.73cd-75ab); articles of diet to be avoided by patients with gulma (42.75cd-76ab).

The second part of the chapter, devoted to śūla (piercing pain), deals with the following subjects: śūla may occur without gulma; its seats are identical with those of gulma (42.76cd-77ab); 625 the aetiology and pathogenesis (42.77cd-80); 626 sūla is called thus because it is characterized by severe pains (vedanā), as if one's body is pierced by a nail (śańku) or spike (śūla) (42.81); the features of śūla due to vāta (42.82–83), pitta (42.84–85ab), kapha (42.85cd–86), and concerted action of the dosas (42.87); 627 the general and specific treatment of the vata type (42.88cd-103ab), 628 pitta type (42.103cd-108), 629 and kapha type (42.109-111); 630 a recipe against all types of śūla (42.112-115); a bhasman, 631 to be taken with warm water, against śūla due to kapha (42.116-117ab); the pathogenesis and symptoms of pārśvaśūla, due to vāta and kapha (42.117cd-119); its treatment (42.120-123ab); the pathogenesis and symptoms of kuksiśūla, ⁶³² due to vāta and arising from āma (42.123cd-125); its treatment (42.126-131ab);633 the pathogenesis and symptoms of hrcchūla, due to vāta and rasa (42.131cd-132), and to be treated like hrdroga⁶³⁴ (42.133ab); the pathogenesis and symptoms of bastiśūla, due to vāta (42.133cd-134); the symptoms of mūtraśtila, due to vāta (42.135); the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptoms of vitśūla, due to vāta (42.136-139); its treatment (42.140-141); śūla arising from undigested food (annadosa); its aetiology, pathogenesis, symptoms, and treatment (42.142–145); all the therapeutic procedures employed in cases of gulma are useful too in patients with śūla (42.146).

Chapter forty-three is devoted to diseases of the cardiac region (hrdroga) and their management.

The subjects dealt with are: aetiology and pathogenesis (43.3–4); ⁶³⁵ the four types of hrdroga: due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and parasites (kṛmi) (43.5); ⁶³⁶ the symptoms of hrdroga due to vāta (43.6), ⁶³⁷ pitta (43.7), ⁶³⁸ kapha (43.8), ⁶³⁹ and parasites (43.9); ⁶⁴⁰ the complications of hrdroga caused by the doşas (43.10ab) and parasites (43.10cd); the treatment of hrdroga due to vāta (43.11–14), ⁶⁴¹ pitta (43.15–17ab), ⁶⁴² kapha (43.17cd–19), ⁶⁴³ and parasites (43.20–22). ⁶⁴⁴

Chapter forty-four is devoted to morbid pallor (pāṇduroga) and its management.

The subjects dealt with are: aetiology and pathogenesis (44.3):645 the four types of pānduroga, ⁶⁴⁶ called thus on account of excessive pallor as its characteristic feature ⁶⁴⁷ (44.4); the prodromes (44.5); 648 names of diseases covered by the general term pānduroga are kāmalā, pānakī, ⁶⁴⁹ pānduroga, kumbha, lāgharaka, ⁶⁵⁰ and alasa (44.6); the symptoms of panduroga due to vata (44.7),651 pitta (44.8),652 kapha (44.9),653 and all the dosas together (44.10a); 654 the aetiology and symptoms of kāmalā655 (44.10b-11ab); 656 the variety of kāmalā called kumbhakāmalā presents a large amount of swelling (sopha) and pain in the joints (44.11cd);657 when associated with a number of other symptoms, kāmalāis known as lāgharaka or alasa (44.12ab); when, due to vāta and pitta, the body assumes a greenish, yellow, or dark blue colour, the variety (of kumbhakāmalā) is called halīmaka (44.12cd);⁶⁵⁸ complications that may arise in these disorders (44.13); the general treatment of curable cases (44.14-15); 659 some purgative recipes (44.16); recipes containing iron (44.17);660 dosas should be eliminated repeatedly in small amounts in order to prevent the development of swelling (44.18ab); the recipes of a mantha (44.18cd) and a medicated ghee (44.19-20ab); the kasāya of yastīmadhu (liquorice) as a useful drug (14.20cd); cūrnas, partly with the addition of powdered iron (44.21); 661 an avaleha, containing salts and other substances (44.22); an avaleha, containing mandura, iron, and a number of medicinal plants (44.23);⁶⁶² vatakas, containing mandūra and vegetable drugs (44.24);⁶⁶³ some more recipes, mostly avalehas (44.25-30ab); preparations for kāmalā (44.30cd-31ab) 664 and kumbhakāmalā (44.31cd-33ab); a preparation containing rock salt and mandūra (44.33cd-35); the treatment of lāgharaka (44.36ab); dietary prescriptions (44.36cd-37); the treatment of complications (44.38); signs indicating incurability $(44.39-40)^{665}$

Chapter forty-five is devoted to haemorrhagic disorders (raktapitta) and their management.

The subjects dealt with are: aetiology and pathogenesis (45.3–4);⁶⁶⁶ the types moving upwards, downwards, and both ways simultaneously (45.5–6ab);⁶⁶⁷ some authorities assert that the blood which appears comes from liver and spleen (45.6cd);⁶⁶⁸ the type moving upwards is curable, that moving downwards is amenable to palliative treatment, that which affects both pathways is incurable (45.7ab);⁶⁶⁹ the prodromes (45.7cd–8ab);⁶⁷⁰ the involvement of the dosas should be determined according to the characteristics of the (expelled) blood (45.8cd);⁶⁷¹ complications

(45.9); ⁶⁷² signs indicating incurability (45.10); ⁶⁷³ disorders arising when the bleeding is checked in the initial stage in strong and well nourished patients (45.11); ⁶⁷⁴ the general treatment of raktapitta (45.12–14); ⁶⁷⁵ suitable emetic preparations (45.15); ⁶⁷⁶ beneficial articles of diet⁶⁷⁷ and various other preparations (45.16–27); six kinds of avapīda (nasal drops) useful in nose bleeds (45.28ab); ⁶⁷⁸ animal blood and goat's liver, together with the bile, as useful remedies in excessive loss of blood (45.28c-f); a series of recipes against raktapitta (45.29–36); recipes against nose bleeds (45.37); the beneficial effect of cooling measures⁶⁷⁹ and sweet substances (45.38ab); salutary enemas (45.38cd–42); bleeding from the urinary bladder should be treated by the application of uttarabasti (45.43ab); all the measures described for raktapitta are to be employed in bleeding haemorrhoids (45.43cd), asrgdara, and excessive blood loss during surgery (45.44); raktapitta should be treated only after a thorough examination of the signs indicating the involvement of the dosas and blood (45.45).

Chapter forty-six is devoted to fainting (mūrchā) and its management. 680

The subjects dealt with are: aetiology and pathogenesis (46.3-4);⁶⁸¹ the general prodromes (46.5); a more detailed description of the pathogenesis of mūrchā or moha (46.6-7c); the six types of mūrchā; caused by each of the three dosas, blood, alcoholic drinks, and poisons; pitta is predominant in all these types (46.7d-8); 682 the features (of the types caused by the dosas) are the same as those described for apasmāra (46. 9ab); 683 the guna called tamas predominates in the smell emanating from blood, as it does in earth and water; this explains that people may faint when smelling blood; others faint when seeing (blood), which, according to some authorities, is due to the inherent nature (svabhāva) of blood itself (46.9cd-10); poisonous substances and alcoholic drinks are very violent (tīvra) as to their properties, 684 which makes them capable of producing fainting (46.11); the symptoms of fainting due to blood (46.12ab), alcoholic drinks (46.12c-f), and poisonous substances (46.13); the treatment of mūrchā (46.14-20ab):⁶⁸⁵ the condition of someone who has fainted and does not recover consciousness, due to an excess of dosas and tamas, is called samnyāsa, a disorder very difficult to cure; treatment should be initiated immediately (46.20cd-22ab); measures that may help the patient to regain consciousness; symptoms occurring when treatment fails and the patient should be given up; treatment after the recovery of consciousness (46.22cd-24); antipyretic kasāyas should also be prescribed in cases of műrchā, dependent on the dosa(s) involved; antidotes are useful in mūrchā caused by poison (46.25).

Chapter forty-seven is devoted to disorders caused by the abuse of alcoholic drinks (pānātyaya) and the management of these disorders. ⁶⁸⁶

The subjects dealt with are: the eight properties of alcoholic drinks: uṣṇa (hot), tīkṣṇa (sharp), sūkṣma (subtle), viśada (clear), rūkṣa (dry), āśukara (quickly acting), vyavāyin (relaxation-promoting), ⁶⁸⁷ and vikāśin (diffusive); the actions and effects of these properties (47.3–5); ⁶⁸⁸ alcoholic drinks are acid in taste and light, they stimulate the appetite and the digestive fire; ⁶⁸⁹ some assert that all the tastes, the saltish one excepted, are present in them (47.6); the beneficial effects of alcoholic drinks when used

properly (47.7-8);690 when used without food and immoderately, these drinks, being of a fiery nature, combine with the bodily fire and produce intoxication (mada) (47. 9);691 intoxication leads to loss of mental balance and the expression of hidden feelings (47.10); ⁶⁹² the three stages (avasthā) of intoxication: pūrva, madhya and paścima; the characteristics of these stages (47.11-12); ⁶⁹³ persons with a predominance of kapha, those with a slight amount of pitta, those who regularly use fatty substances, and those who drink in moderation, are not very much affected by alcoholic drinks, while the contrary applies to the opposite types (47.13);⁶⁹⁴ those who habitually drink on an empty stomach, and when alone, develop very troublesome diseases which ultimately destroy the body (47.14); types of persons prone to develop disorders caused by alcohol abuse (47.15-16); the disorders due to abuse of alcohol are: pānātyaya, paramada, pāṇā jīrna, and the serious (ugra) condition called pāṇavibhrama (47.17); 695 the symptoms of pānātyaya due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and all the three dosas (47.18-19ab): 696 the symptoms of paramada (47.19cd-20ab), ⁶⁹⁷ pānā jīrna (47.20cd-21ab), ⁶⁹⁸ and pānavibhrama (47.21cd-22ab); ⁶⁹⁹ signs indicating incurability (47.22cd-23ab); complications arising from alcohol abuse (47.23cd); the treatment of pānātyaya due to vāta (47.24cd-26ab), ⁷⁰⁰ pitta (47.26cd-27), ⁷⁰¹ kapha (47.28-29ab), ⁷⁰² a combination of two dosas, and all three dosas together (47.29cd-30ab); ⁷⁰³ recipes against pānātyaya (47.30cd-34ab); the treatment of paramada (47.34cd-36), pānā jīrna (47.37-39a), and pānavibhrama (47.39b-41); a recipe against all disorders caused by alcohol abuse (47. 42); things to be recommended to persons habitually enjoying alcoholic drinks (47. 43-44); two recipes useful in pānātyaya (47.45-46); the type of alcoholic drink habitually used by a patient with one of the described disorders should be prescribed in a methodical way during his treatment (47.47-48); 704 someone who, after a period of abstinence, suddenly resumes drinking too much, develops the disorders described in relation with pānātyaya (47.49); 705 the pathogenesis of thirst (tṛṣṇā), resulting from alcohol abuse (47.50); the treatment of this condition (47.51–54ab); the pathogenesis of a severe burning sensation (dāha), resulting from alcohol abuse (47.54); the general treatment of this disorder (47.55-65); the accompanying symptoms and the treatment of a burning sensation due to blood (47.67-69); the pathogenesis, accompanying symptoms, and treatment of a burning sensation due to pitta (47.70-73ab); the accompanying symptoms and the treatment of a burning sensation due to filling of the kostha with blood are like those described in the sadyovranīya chapter ⁷⁰⁶ (47.73–74ab); the accompanying symptoms of a burning sensation caused by decrease of the elements of the body; the treatment of this condition is like that of raktapitta (47.74cd-75); the treatment of a burning sensation in patients with a trauma, those who do not observe the rules of diet, and those suffering from grief (47.76–77); patients with a burning sensation due to an injury to a vital spot (marman) are incurable and should not be treated when their body feels cold (47.78); after subsidence of the complications of the disorders due to drinking, purificatory measures should be carried out (47.79); the treatment of thirst by administering a diluted and medicated alcoholic drink (47.80); the proper way of enjoying a drink, without running the risk of intoxication or the development of a disease produced by alcohol (47.81).

Chapter forty-eight is devoted to (pathological) thirst (tṛṣṇā) and its management: 707

The subjects dealt with are: a person who is not satisfied, although drinking water constantly, and craves for water again and again, suffers from the disorder called tṛṣṇā (48.3); aetiology and pathogenesis (48.4–5); ⁷⁰⁸ the seven types oftṛṣṇā: due to each of the three doṣas, a trauma (kṣata), depletion (kṣaya), āma, and diet (bhakta) (48.6); ⁷⁰⁹ the general prodromes (48.7); ⁷¹⁰ the symptoms of tṛṣṇā due to vāta (48.8), ⁷¹¹ pitta (48. 9), ⁷¹² kapha (48.10–11), ⁷¹³ a trauma (48.12), ⁷¹⁴ depletion of rasa (48.13–14ab), ⁷¹⁵ āma (48.14cd), ⁷¹⁶ and the excessive intake of oleaginous, sour, saltish, and heavy articles offood (48.15ab); ⁷¹⁷ signs pointing to a bad prognosis (48.15cd); ⁷¹⁸ general treatment (48.16–18); ⁷¹⁹ the treatment of tṛṣṇā due to vāta (48.19), ⁷²⁰ pitta (48.20,), ⁷²¹ and kapha (48.21); ⁷²² measures against pitta are useful in all types of tṛṣṇā (48.22–23ab); the treatment of tṛṣṇā due to a trauma (48.23cd–27), depletion (48.28ab), ⁷²³ āma (48.28cd–29ab), heavy articles of food (48.29cd), ⁷²⁴ fatigue (48.30ab), abstention from food (bhaktoparodha) (48.30cd), ⁷²⁵ the drinking of fatty substances (48.31ab), abuse of alcohol (48.31cd), heat (48.32ab), and the doṣas (48.32cd); measures which are beneficial in all types of tṛṣṇā (48.33).

Chapter forty-nine is devoted to vomiting (chardi) and its management. 726

The subjects dealt with are: aetiology (49.3–5), ⁷²⁷ pathogenesis (49.6–7), ⁷²⁸ the prodromes (49.8); the symptoms of vomiting due to vāta (49.9), ⁷²⁹ pitta (49.10), ⁷³⁰ kapha (49.11), ⁷³¹ and all the doṣas (49.12ab); ⁷³² exogenous factors which may lead to vomiting are: loathsome sights, ⁷³³ dauhṛda during pregnancy, āma, uncongenial diet, and parasites; these conditions should be diagnosed according to the doṣa(s) involved (49.12c-f); the symptoms of vomiting caused by parasites (49.13); characteristics of cases not to be treated, being incurable (49.14); ⁷³⁴ general treatment measures (49.15–18ab); ⁷³⁵ the treatment of vomiting due to vāta (49.18cd–20), ⁷³⁶ pitta (49.21–22), ⁷³⁷ kapha (49.23), ⁷³⁸ all three doṣas (49.24), ⁷³⁹ and exogenous factors (49.25–26); ⁷⁴⁰ various recipes against vomiting (49.27–34); articles of diet to be recommended in all cases of vomiting (49.35).

Chapter fifty is devoted to hiccup (hikkā) and its management. 741

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology of hiccup, respiratory disorders (śvāsa), and cough (kāsa) (50.3–5); ⁷⁴² the characteristics of hiccup and the derivation of its name (50.6); ⁷⁴³ vāta, associated (anugata) with kapha, gives rise to five types of hiccup: annajā, yamalā, kṣudrā, gambhīrā, and mahatī (50.7); ⁷¹⁴ the general prodromes (50.8); ⁷⁴⁵ the aetiology and pathogenesis of annajā hiccup (50.9–10ab); ⁷⁴⁶ yamalā hiccup appears in two successive bouts and with long intervals (50.10cd–11ab); ⁷⁴⁷ the characteristics of kṣudrā (50.11cd–12ab), ⁷⁴⁸ gambhīrā (50.12cd–13), ⁷⁴⁹ and mahāhikkā (50.14); ⁷⁵⁰ signs indicating incurability; ⁷⁵¹ gambhīrā and mahāhikkā are also incurable and should not be accepted for treatment (50.15); general treatment measures (50.16ab); ⁷⁵² errhines (50.16cd); beneficial drinks; emetics (50.17ab); three errhines (50.17cd–18ab); fumigations; ⁷⁵³ sudation ⁷⁵⁴ (50.18cd–19ab); six electuaries (50.19cd–21ab); beneficial dietary items (50.21cd); medicated milk preparations (50.22ab); medicated urine preparations which relieve hiccup when smelled (50.

6 Uttaratantra 325

22cd-23ab); useful drinks (50.23cd-25); a series of recipes (50.26-28); useful broths (50.29); purgation (50.30ab); some recommend anuvāsana enemas (50.30cd).

Chapter fifty-one is devoted to respiratory disorders (śvāsa) and their management.

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiological factors, which are the same as those for hiccup (51.3); 755 pathogenesis (51.4); 756 śvāsa, a serious disease (mahāvyādhi), is, though one in its nature, divided into five types; ksudraka, tamaka, chinna(śvāsa). mahā(śvāsa), and ūrdhva(śvāsa) (51.5);757 the prodromes (51.6);758 the characteristics and symptoms of ksudraśvāsa⁷⁵⁹ (51.7), ⁷⁶⁰ tamaka⁷⁶¹ and a variety called pratamaka⁷⁶² (51.8–10),⁷⁶³ chinnaśvāsa⁷⁶⁴ (51.11),⁷⁶⁵ mahāśvāsa⁷⁶⁶ (51.12),⁷⁶⁷ and ūrdhvaśvāsa⁷⁶⁸ (51.13);⁷⁶⁹ ksudraśvāsa is easily curable, tamaka is difficult to cure; the remaining three types, as well as tamaka in a weak patient, are incurable (51.14); 770 general treatment; some authorities assert that purificatory measures by both the upper and lower routes, with the exception of snehabasti, should be applied; actually, only mild varieties of these measures should be employed in patients with an adequate vital power (51.15);⁷⁷¹ medicated ghees: abhayādighrta (51.16), sauvarcalādighrta (51.17-18ab), hirnsrādighrta (51.18cd-20ab), vrsaghrta (51.20cd-21ab), śrngyādighrta (51.21cd-23ab), suvahādighrta (51.23cd-25ab); a second sauvarcaļādighrta and a variety of it, prepared with a decoction of gopavalli (51.25cd-26); the five ghees mentioned⁷⁷² are to be employed in śvāsa and kāsa (51.27ab);⁷⁷³ the recipe of tālīśādighta (51.27cd-29ab); vāsāghrta 774 and satpalaghrta 775 are also beneficial (51.29cd); bhrngarājataila (51.30);⁷⁷⁶ meat broths, vegetable yūsas,⁷⁷⁷ and milk preparations (51.31–32ab); five electuaries (leha) (51.32cd–35); ⁷⁷⁸ a series of various recipes (51.36-43ab); the recipes described for panduroga, so that and kasa may also be used in cases of śvāsa (51.43cd-44ab); some more recipes (51.44cd-46ab); beneficial articles of diet and related items (51.46cd-47); treatment with oleation and sudation (51.48-49ab);⁷⁷⁹ treatment with medicinal smokes (dhūma) (51.49cd-53ab);⁷⁸⁰ treatment of strong and weak patients (51.53cd-54); ⁷⁸¹ an electuary (51.55); śvāsa, kāsa and vilambikā are as difficult to restrain as a fire fanned by the wind, or the va jra hurled by the king of the gods ⁷⁸² (51.56).

Chapter fifty-two is devoted to cough (kāsa) and its.management. 783

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiological factors of kāsa are the same as those of hikkā and śvāsa (52.3); ⁷⁸⁴ pathogenesis (52.4–5); ⁷⁸⁵ cough is of five types: due to vāta, pitta, kapha, a trauma (kṣata), and wasting (kṣaya); aggravation of cough may lead to the development of yakṣman ⁷⁸⁶ (52.6); ⁷⁸⁷ the prodromes (52.7); ⁷⁸⁸ the symptomatology of cough due to vāta (52.8), ⁷⁸⁹ pitta, (52.9) ⁷⁹⁰ and kapha (52.10); ⁷⁹¹ the aetiology and symptomatology of coughing due to (uraḥ)kṣata⁷⁹² (52.11); ⁷⁹³ the symptoms of cough caused by wasting (52.12), ⁷⁹⁴ which is extremely difficult to cure (52.13ab); ⁷⁹⁵ cough occurring in old age is only amenable to palliative treatment (52.13cd); ⁷⁹⁶ recipes against cough in general (52.14–25); ⁷⁹⁷ the treatment of cough due to vāta (52.26–28ab) ⁷⁹⁸ and kapha (52.28cd–30ab); ⁷⁹⁹ a recipe against all types of cough (52.30cd–32ab); the treatment of the types caused by pitta, ⁸⁰⁰ kṣata, ⁸⁰¹ and kṣaya⁸⁰² (52.32cd–37); the preparation of kalyānakaguda and its indications

(52.38-41); the preparation and indications of agastyāvaleha (52.42-46);⁸⁰³ the preparation of kulīrādighṛta, useful against the kṣataja and kṣayaja types of cough (52.47); a ghee against all types of cough (52.48).

Chapter fifty-three is devoted to disorders of the voice (svarabheda) 804 and their management.

The subjects dealt with are: aetiology and pathogenesis of the six types of svarabheda (53.3); the symptomatology of svarabheda due to vāta, pitta, kapha, all the doṣas together, kṣaya (wasting), and accumulation of fatty tissue (medaścaya) (53.4–6); so cases which are incurable (53.7); general treatment (53.8); the measures described against śvāsa and kāsa should also be carried out (53.9ab); the treatment of svarabheda due to vāta (53.10–12), pitta (53.13–14), kapha (53.15), fatty tissue (53.16ab), all the doṣas and kṣaya (53.16cd), and loud speaking (53.17).

Chapter fifty-four is devoted to parasites 806 and the treatment of disorders caused by these organisms (kṛmiroga).

The subjects dealt with are: aetiological factors leading to excitement of kapha and pitta, which, in its turn, brings about the coming into being of numerous kinds of parasites at various places of the body (54.3–6ab); 807 these organisms, living upon phlegm (kapha) and faeces, usually occur in āmāsava and pakvāsava, or, when arising from blood, in the dhamanis (54.6c-f); the parasites, arising from faeces, kapha and blood, 808 are of twenty kinds (54.7); the seven kinds originating from faecal matter are: ajava, 809 vi java, 810 kipya, 811 cipya, 812 gandūpada, 813 curu, 814 and dvimukha; 815 their outward appearance; symptoms caused by them (54.8-11); the six kinds originating from kapha are: darbhapuspa, mahāpuspa, pralūna, cipita, pipīlikā, and dāruna; their outward appearance; their location; diseases caused by them (54.12-14); the seven kinds originating from blood are: keśāda, romāda, nakhāda, dantāda, kikkiśa, kusthaja, and parīsarpa; their outward appearance; they usually give rise to diseases located in the blood (54.15–16); 816 the dietary origin of the three groups of parasites (54.17–18ab); general symptoms (54.18cd-19ab); the first thirteen kinds are visible, the remaining seven ones invisible; 817 (infestations by) keśāda and romāda should not be accepted for treatment (54.19cd-20ab); general treatment of (54.20cd-25ab) and particular recipes against infestations by parasites originating from faecal mater and kapha (54.25cd-33); 818 parasites invading the head, heart, nose, ears, or eyes should be counteracted by collyria. errhines and nasal drops (54.34); 819 nasally administered drugs (5.35-36); parasites living on the hairs should be treated in the same way as baldness (indralupta); the treatment of dantādas is like that of diseases of the oral cavity (54.37); parasites originating from blood require the same treatment as kustha (54,38ab); drugs to be used against all kinds of parasites (54.38cd); beneficial articles of diet and those to be avoided (54.39-40).

Chapter fifty-five is devoted to udavarta and its management.

The subjects dealt with are: natural urges should not be suppressed (55.3); suppression (vidhāraṇa) of the natural urges of passing flatus, faeces and urine, yawn-

ing, shedding tears, sneezing, belching, vomiting, and ejaculating leads to udavarta, as well as the suppression of hunger, thirst, breathing, and sleep; these thirteen types will be described, \$20 together with their treatment; an additional, fourteenth, type is due to unwholesome diet (55.4-6); the symptoms of udavarta caused by suppression of the urge to pass flatus (55.7-8ab), 821 faeces (55.8cd-9ab), 822 and urine (55.9cd-10), 823 by suppression of the urge to yawn (55.11), 824 shed tears (55.12), 825 sneeze (55.13), 826 belch (55.14ab), 827 vomit (55.14cd), 828 and ejaculate (55.15), 829 by suppression of hunger (55.16ab), 830 thirst (55.16cd), 831 breathing (55.17ab), 832 and sleep (55.17cd); 833 cases not to be accepted for treatment (55.18); the general treatment is like that of vata diseases (55.19-20ab); 834 the treatment of udavarta caused by suppression of the urge to pass flatus (55.20cd), 835 faeces (55.21ab), 836 and urine (55. 21cd-27), 837 suppression of the urge to yawn (55.28ab), 838 shed tears (55.28cd), 839 sneeze (55.29-30ab), 840 belch (55.30cd-3 lab), 841 vomit (55.3 lcd-32ab), 842 and ejaculate (55.32cd-33), 843 suppression of hunger (55.34ab), 844 thirst (55.34cd), 845 breathing (55.35ab), 846 and sleep (55.35cd); 847 the treatment of complications (55.36); the aetiology and pathogenesis of udavarta due to the intake of particular foods (55.37–38); the symptoms and complications of this disorder (55.39-41ab); 848 the general treatment (55.41cd-43ab); 849 specific recipes (55.43cd-53).850

Chapter fifty-six is devoted to visūcikā (and related disorders) and their treatment.

The subjects dealt with are: the three disorders of digestion (ajīrna), called āma, viṣṭabdha and vidagdha, which have already been described, ⁸⁵¹ may develop into visūcikā, ⁸⁵² alasaka, ⁸⁵³ and vilambikā ⁸⁵⁴ respectively (56.3); the derivation of the name visūcikā (56.4); its aetiology (56.5) and symptomatology (56.6); ⁸⁵⁵ the symptoms of alasaka (56.7–8); ⁸⁵⁶ the characteristics of vilambikā, which is extremely difficult to cure (56.9); āma, ⁸⁵⁷ pervaded by the doṣas, produces disorders in those parts of the body where it is located; one should diagnose these disorders by means of the signs characteristic of the doṣas and of āma (56.10); ⁸⁵⁸ signs indicating a fatal outcome (56.11); the general treatment of curable cases of visūcī (56.12–13); ⁸⁵⁹ specific treatment (56.14–19ab); after-treatment (56.19cd–20ab); the general characteristics of ānāha (56.2 dcd–21ab); ⁸⁶⁰ the symptoms ofānāha due to āma (56.21cd–22ab); the symptoms ofānāha originating in the pakvāśaya (56.22cd–23ab), ⁸⁶¹ the treatment of ānāha (56.23cd–27).

Chapter fifty-seven is devoted to arocaka (loss of appetite) and its treatment.

The subjects dealt with are: the pathogenesis of aversion to food (bhaktopaghāta), which is of five types: due to one of the doṣas singly, all the doṣas together, and psychological factors (57.3); the symptoms of arocaka due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and the three doṣas collectively (57.4–5); ⁸⁶² the aetiology of arocaka of mental origin (57.6ab); ⁸⁶³ the treatment of the doṣic types of arocaka (57.6cd–8); ⁸⁶⁴ four avalehas as specifics against the four doṣic types (57.11); beneficial articles of diet in arocaka (57.12); treatment with āsthāpana enemas, purgation, and evacuation of the head (57.13ab); various preparations stimulating the appetite (57.13cd–15); the treatment of arocaka of mental origin (57.16–17). ⁸⁶⁵

Chapter fifty-eight is devoted to mūtrāghāta 866 and its management.

The subjects dealt with are: the twelve types of mūtrāghāta (58.3-4): 867 the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of each of these twelve types: vātakundalikā (58.5-6), 868 vātāsthīla (58.7-8), 869 vātabasti (58.9-10), 870 mūtrātīta (58.11-12), 871 mūtrajaihara (58.13–14),872 mūtrotsanga (58.15–16),873 mūtrasannksaya (58.17),874 mütragranthi (58.18-19), 875 mūtrasukra (58.20-21), 876 usņavāta (58.22-23), 877 mūtraukasāda due to pitta⁸⁷⁸ (58.24–25ab), and mūtraukasāda due to kapha⁸⁷⁹ (58. 25cd-26);880 general treatment (58.27-28);881 four recipes against mūtrakrcchra882 (58.29-32); the treatment of mūtrāghāta due to vāta and pitta (58.33-34); twelve recipes against mūtradosa⁸⁸³ and aśmarī (bladder stones) (58.35-49ab); general treatment of mūtradosa (58.49cd-50); treatment of haematuria resulting from sexual excesses (58.51-52); a medicated ghee against mūtradosa (58.53-57); the preparation of balāghrta, useful in cases of mūtradosa (58.58-62ab); 884 a variety of balāghrta to be employed in disorders of the semen (sukradosa) in order to restore potency (58.62cd-65ab); the preparation of mahābalāghīta, to be used against disorders of the semen, as a rasayana and aphrodisiac (vrsya), to promote fertility in women, against disorders of the blood (asrgdosa), yonidosa, and mūtradosa (58.65cd-72).

Chapter fifty-nine is devoted to mūtrakṛcchra⁸⁸⁵ and its management. 886

The subjects dealt with are: mūtropaghāta (= mūtrakṛcchra), a very distressing disease, is of eight types: due to vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas, traumata, faeces, urinary calculi (aśmarī), and gravel (śarkarā) (59.3); ⁸⁸⁷ the symptoms of mūtrakṛcchra caused by vāta (59.4), ⁸⁸⁸ pitta (59.5), ⁸⁸⁹ kapha (59.6), ⁸⁹⁰ concerted action of the doṣas (59. 7), ⁸⁹¹ a trauma (59.8–9ab), ⁸⁹² retention (pratīghāta) of faeces (59.9cd–10ab), ⁸⁹³ urinary calculi (59.10cd), ⁸⁹⁴ and gravel (59.11–15ab); ⁸⁹⁵ general treatment (59.15cd–16); treatment of mūtrakṛcchra due to vāta (59.17–20ab), ⁸⁹⁶ pitta (59.20cd–22), ⁸⁹⁷ kapha (59.23), ⁸⁹⁸ all the doṣas (59.25ab), ⁸⁹⁹ a trauma (59.25cd), (retention of) faeces (59.26), urinary calculi, and gravel (59.27).

Chapter sixty is devoted to afflictions (upasarga) caused by non-human (amānuṣa) agents. 900

The subjects of this chapter are: as already referred to, ⁹⁰¹ patients with sores should always be protected from (malevolent) beings moving about by night (60.3); the general characteristics of persons afflicted by a graha (60.4); these grahas try to hurt those who are impure and transgress (proper) limits (of behaviour), ⁹⁰² whether or not they are suffering from wounds (kṣata); the aims of these grahas are: the use of violence (hiṃṣā), playful activities (vihāra), and getting offerings (satkāra) (60.5); ⁹⁰³ the grahas are innumerable, but their main groups are eight in number: the gods (deva), the enemies of the gods, gandharvas, yakṣas, pitars (manes), bhujaṅgas (serpent deities), rākṣasas, and piśācas (60.6–7); ⁹⁰⁴ the characteristics of persons visited by a deity (60.8), an enemy of the deities (60.9), a gandharva (60.10), yakṣa (60.11), pitar (60.12), bhujaṅga (60.13), rākṣasa (60.14), and piśāca (60.15); ⁹⁰⁵ signs indicating incurability (60.16); ⁹⁰⁶ the periods of time characteristic for possession by each of the eight groups of grahas (60.17–18); ⁹⁰⁷ the grahas themselves remain invisible when they enter a hu-

man being; their way of getting entrance resembles the formation of an image in a mirror, the penetration of cold and heat into the human body, the penetration of the rays of the sun into a khamani, 908 and the entrance of the ātman into the body (60.19); 909 characteristic features of persons visited by a graha (60.20):910 the grahas never actually enter a human being; those who are convinced that states of possession exist are fools without proper understanding of bhūtavidyā (60.21); not the grahas themselves, but their innumerable attendants, living on blood, fat and meat, very dreadful, and roaming about at night, are the ones who take possession of human beings (60.22); these attendants exhibit the same features as their lords; they are the offspring of the daughters of Nirrti and are called bhūtas (60.23-27ab); bhūtavidyā is the science concerned with knowledge about the grahas called bhūtas (60.27cd-28ab); treatment should start with the muttering (of mantras), religious observances (niyama), and offerings (homa) (60.28cd-29ab); 911 offerings propitiating all the groups of grahas (60.29cd-30ab); special requirements for the offerings to each type of graha (60.3lcd-37ab); treatment by means of drugs should be carried out when the described measures are unsuccessful (60.37cd-38ab); treatment by the use of fumigations (60.38cd-39), snuffs, inunction, sprinklings (60.40-42), and collyria (60.43-46ab); recipes against all kinds of mental disorders (60.46cd-54ab); impure (acauksa) articles should never be employed in the treatment of afflictions by grahas, excepting those caused by piśācas (60.54cd-55); a physician should always observe the rules described in the hitāhitīva chapter 912 (60. 50).

Chapter sixty-one is devoted to epilepsy (apasmāra) and its management.

The subjects dealt with are: the derivation of the term apasmara (61.3):913 aetiology (61.4-6);⁹¹⁴ prodromes (61.7);⁹¹⁵ pathogenesis (61.8-10c);⁹¹⁶ the four types of apasmāra: due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and concerted action of the dosas (61.10d-11ab);⁹¹⁷ the symptoms of apasmāra due to vāta (61.11cd-12),⁹¹⁸ pitta (61.13-14ab), ⁹¹⁹ and kapha (61.14cd-15); ⁹²⁰ the most specific symptom of the types due to vata, pitta and kapha respectively, and some symptoms common to these three types (61.16); features of all three types are combined in the one caused by all the dosas collectively (61.17ab);⁹²¹ some are of the opinion that apasmāra is not brought about by the dosas, since it appears and disappears again, even when left untreated, without any apparent cause (61.17cd-18ab); 922 the experts, however, claim that it is caused by the dosas, firstly because the various stages of their excitement are observed, secondly on account of the momentary character (ksanikatva) of this excitement, thirdly, because of the trustworthy tradition (agama), and, fourthly, on account of the presence of the signs of all (the aetiological factors) (vaiśvarūpya) (61.18cd-19ab); dosas are compared to seeds, which, having lain domant in the earth, manifest themselves under the influence of the rains; although always present, they may increase, after an interval of time, thereby giving rise, in agreement with their inherent nature (nisarga), to various kinds of disorders; for these reasons the serious disease called apasmāra should be regarded as arising from the dosas (61. 19cd-21); 923 apasmāra may in general be treated in the same way as unmāda 924 and afflictions by grahas; 925 old ghee is always to be recommended 926 (61.22-23cd);

a medicated oil for inunction (abhyañjana) (61.23ef-24ab); another medicated oil (61.24cd-25ab); purification along both (upper and lower) routes and evacuation of the head should be carried out (61.25cd); Rudra and his attendants should be worshipped (61.26ab); enemas are useful in the vāta type, purgatives in the pitta type, and emetics in the kapha type (61.26cd-27ab); 927 specific treatment of the types due to vāta (61.27cd-28), pitta (61.29), and kapha (61.30); the preparation and indications of siddhārthakasarpis (61.31-33), pañcagavyasarpis (61.34-37)⁹²⁸ and bhārgyādisurā (61.38-41ab); phlebotomy and the use of auspicious articles (maṅgalya)⁹²⁹ are also recommended (61.41cd).

Chapter sixty-two is devoted to insanity (unmāda) and its management.

The subjects dealt with are: the derivation of the term unmada (62.3); 930 the six types of unmada: due to one of the three dosas singly, all the dosas collectively, mental imbalance, and poison (62.4-5ab); 931 when in an early and not advanced stage, the disease is called mada (62.5cd); 932 the prodromes (62.6-7); 933 the symptoms of unmada due to vāta (62.8), 934 pitta (62.9), 935 kapha (62.10), 936 and all the dosas (62.11); 937 the aetiology and symptomatology of unmada due to mental factors (62.12-13ab); 938 the symptoms of unmāda caused by poisonous substances (62.13cd), general treatment, in particular by purificatory measures (62.14-15); 939 fumigation (62.16ab); 940 the beneficial effect of mustard oil (62.16cd); treatments inducing fright in the patient (62.17-20ab); 941 prescriptions regarding diet (62.20cd-21); the preparation and indications of kalyāṇaghṛta (62.22-24), 942 mahākalyāṇaghṛta (62.25-26)943 and phalaghṛta (62. 27-29); 944 vartis (62.30-32); places for bloodletting (62.33ab); 945 the treatments described for apasmāra and afflictions by grahas may also be carried out (62.33cd); 946 after-treatment by snehabastis (62.34ab); appeasement of the mind is important in all cases of unmāda (62.34cd), 947 mild forms of treatment should be employed in cases of mada (62.34ef); unmāda of mental origin should be treated by the removal of grief (62.35ab); 948 unmāda due to poison requires mild forms of treatment and antidotes (62. 35cd).

Chapter sixty-three is devoted to the combinations of the different tastes (rasabheda-vikalpa) 949

The fifteen kinds of prasara of the dosas, which have already been mentioned, ⁹⁵⁰ are useful in the context of the classification of the tastes and their combinations (63.3). The tastes, which are, singly and in combination, sixty-three in number, should duly be taken into consideration with respect to treatment of the dosas, which may be roused singly, in combination, or with part of their properties (bhāgasás) only, thus also making a total of sixty-three kinds of arousal (63.4–5). The fifteen combinations of two tastes (63.6–8), twenty combinations of three tastes (63.9–10), fifteen combinations of fourtastes (63.11–12), and six combinations of five tastes (63.13–14); the combination of all six tastes together (63.15); the six tastes taken separately (63.16).

Chapter sixty-four is devoted to rules concerning the preservation of health (svasthavṛtta). 951

The subjects dealt with are: the rules for the preservation of health, which have already been outlined in brief in the Sūtrasthāna, 952 will be described in more detail in this chapter (64.3-4); substances with particular tastes should be prescribed by taking into account which dosa or dosas are excited in a particular season (64.5); the regimen to be observed during the rainy season (varṣāḥ) (64.6-13ab), 953 autumn (śarad) (64. 13cd-21ab), 954 winter (hemanta) (64.21cd-31), 955 spring (vasanta) (64.32-40ab), 956 summer (nidāgha) (64.40cd-46ab), 957 and early rains (prāvrs) (64.46cd-55ab); 958 the benefits of observing the seasonal regimen (64.55cd-56ab); the twelve types of diet, useful in particular groups of persons for the preservation of health, as well as in particular types of patients: a diet rich in cold, hot, oleaginous, dry, liquid, or solid foods, one meal or two meals a day, meals with medicines added, meals which are less in quantity than usual, a dosa-appeasing diet, and a normal diet (64.56); groups of persons fit for these twelve types of diet (64.57–64); the enumeration of the ten proper times for the administration of medicines (64.65), their description, indications, and effects: abhakta (taken separately, without any food), prāgbhakta (before a meal), adhobhakta (after a meal), madhyabhakta (during a meal), antarābhakta (between two meals), sabhakta (mixed with food), sāmudga (at the beginning and end of a meal), muhurmuhur (repeatedly, with and without meals), grasa (with a morsel of food), and grasantara (between morsels of food) (64.66-83); 959 the proper time for taking a meal (64.84).

Chapter sixty-five is devoted to the tantrayuktis.

The thirty-two tantrayuktis are enumerated (65.3). ⁹⁶⁰ Their purpose is to make up sentences (vākyayojana) and make them meaningful (arthayojana) (65.4). They are useful in refuting false statements and establishing one's own points; they are also meant to elucidate statements which are not clear (avyakta), those with a hidden meaning (līnārtha), and those with a meaning only hinted at (leśokta) (65.5–7).

The thirty-two tantrayuktis are defined and illustrated by means of examples: adhikaraṇa (65.8), 961 yoga (65.9), 962 padārtha (65.10), 963 hetvartha (65.11), 964 uddeśa (65.12), 965 nirdeśa (65.13), 966 upadeśa (65.14), 967 apadeśa (65.15), 968 pradeśa (65.16), 969 atideśa (65.17), 970 apavarga (65.18), 971 vākyaśeṣa (65.19), 972 arthāpatti (65.20), 973 viparyaya (65.21), 974 prasaṅga (65.22), 976 ekānta (65.23), 976 anekānta (65.24), 977 pūrvapakṣa (65.25), 978 nirṇaya (65.26–27), 979 anumata (65.28), 980 vidhāna (65.29), 981 anāgatāvekṣaṇa (65.30), 982 atikrāntāvekṣaṇa (65.31), 983 samsáya (65.32), 984 vyākhyāna (65.33), 985 svasaṇiṇāa (65.34), 986 nirvacana (65.35), 987 nidarśana (65.36), 988 niyoga (65.37), 989 samuccaya (65.38), 990 vikalpa (65.39), 991 and ūhya (65.40).

The general features of the tantrayuktis have thus been determined; their special features depend on the context (65.41). They have been laid down for the sake of the search for the true meaning of (this) treatise (65.42). Physicians able to understand them properly deserve to be honoured; so says Dhanvantari (65.43).

Chapter sixty-six is devoted to the determination of the different combinations of dosas (dosabhedavikalpa).

The chapter opens with Suśruta questioning Divodāsa on the sixty-two combina-

tions of dosas, which are referred to earlier in his exposition ⁹⁹³ (66.3-4). He asks how many the dosas are when grouped together singly, in pairs, or in triads (66.5ab).

Divodāsa proceeds to answer these questions. The three dosas, the (seven) elements of the body, faeces and urine sustain the body when, due to (the intake of substances with) salutary tastes, they are not vitiated. The individual human being consists of sixteen components (puruṣaḥ sodaśakalaḥ); ⁹⁹⁴ the prāṇas are eleven in number; ⁹⁹⁵ the diseases are 1,120 in number ⁹⁹⁶ and the drugs 573; the three doṣas, together with all their combinations, make a total number of sixty-two; these doṣas are predominantly associated with one of the three gunas ⁹⁹⁷ (66.5cd-9).

Each of the three doṣas may be increased, while the two other ones remain in their normal state; three combinations are possible when two doṣas have increased to an equal degree, and six combinations when the increase of one of the two exceeds that of the other; the number of combinations is thirteen when the three doṣas are involved: they have increased to an equal degree (1), one of them has increased more than the other two (3), two doṣas have increased more than the third (3), and their increases are slight, moderate and excessive respectively (9). This number of twenty-five combinations with increase is matched by a same number of combinations with decrease of one, two or three doṣas, to an equal or unequal degree. The number of combinations with a mixture of increased and decreased doṣas is twelve. Thus a total of sixty-two combinations is reached (66.10–12ab). ⁹⁹⁸ The combinations of doṣas, elements of the body (dhātu) and impurities (mala) are innumerable (66.12cd).

A physician should duly give attention to all these combinations, diagnose the disease, and begin treatment with (substances possessing) the proper tastes (66.13). The physician is the agent(kartar), the tastes are the means (karana), and the dosas are the causal factors (kārana); the aim is health (ārogya); anything else is disease (66.14).

Thus the Uttaratantra has been expounded and explained. The physician who has duly studied the whole treatise, together with the Uttara(tantra), which derives from Brahmā, will realize his wishes, because Brahmā's words come true (66.15–17).

Chapter 7 Suśruta and the Suśrutasamhitā

Persons called Susruta and their identities

The Suśrutasamhitā presents a Suśruta who is the son of Viśvāmitra and a pupil of Kā-śirāja Divodāsa Dhanvantari. Apart from this Suśruta, other persons of the same name are known from a variety of Sanskrit sources.

A Suśruta who was the son of Subhāṣa is mentioned as one of the kings of Mithilā in the Viṣṇupurāṇa. ¹ A quite unrelated Suśruta figures, together with his son Viśruta, in Daṇḍin's Daśakumāracarita, which is a work of fiction. ² More interesting is a Suśruta of the Mahābhārata, ³ who is, like the Suśruta of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, described as one of the sons of Viśvāmitra.

Important in the context of the discussions on the identity and date of the Suśruta of the Suśrutasamhitā is the occurrence of the compound sauśrutapārthavāḥ in the Gaṇapātha, belonging to Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī. This compound is elucidated in Kāṭyāyana's Vārttika, the Mahābhāṣya, the Kāsikāvntti, and Jinendrabuddhi's Nyāsa. The sauśrutapārthavāḥ are interpreted as the pupils of Suśruta and Prthu. A vārttika of Kāṭyāyana says that the Sauśruta is a work proclaimed by Suśruta. Noteworthy too is the term kutapasauśruta, used in the Mahābhāṣya, and explained as denoting a sauśruta wearing the type of warmclothing called kutapa.

Four Suśrutas, connected with the medical science, make their appearance in texts not related to the Suśrutasamhitā.

A Suśruta belongs to a group of munis, assembled in the Himālayas, in part I of the Bower MS. This Suśruta approaches a person called Kāśirāja with questions on the nature of a particular medicinal plant, which proves to be garlic. Another Suśruta is found in the *Upāyahṛdaya*, ascribed to Nāgārjuna. ¹⁴ A third Suśruta, known to the *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa*, is described as the pupil of a Dhanvantari who was born in Kāśī as the son of the brāhmaṇa Kalpadatta; this Dhanvantari, an incarnation of Sūrya, composed a treatise called *Kalpaveda*, which became the model of Suśruta's *Sauśrutatantra*, a medical work in one hundred chapters. ¹⁵ A fourth Suśruta, regarded as the son and pupil of Śālihotra, the famous expert on horses, figures in several texts on aśvaśāstra. ¹⁶

A person, unrelated to the Suśruta of the Suśrutasamhitā, but yet sometimes identified with him, is the Suśrotar Medhāvin of the Bhelasamhitā. 17

Suśruta, as a medical authority and pupil of Dhanvantari, is mentioned in the Agnipurāṇa and Garudapurāṇa. ¹⁸ Suśruta and Caraka are medical authorities in Śrīharṣa's Naiṣadhacarita, ¹⁹ while Suśruta is known as a medical expert in Ballālasena's Adbhutasāgara²⁰ and Rājaśekhara's Bālarāmāyana. ²¹ The claim of P. Rāy, ²² that one of the Jātakas is acquainted with Suśruta as a teacher in the university of Kāśī and as a younger contemporary of Ātreya, appears to be unfounded.

A very large number of medical works refer to Suśruta or quote him.

The connections between some of the Suśrutas referred to and the Suśruta of the Suśrutasaṃhitā constitute a controversial and vexed issue. The discussions in the secondary literature are complicated and sometimes confused by the distinction of two Suśrutas: an Ādyasuśruta, Vṛddhasuśruta, Suśruta I, or Suśruta the Elder, the supposed author of a Sauśrutatantra, and a Suśruta II or Suśruta the Younger, who rewrote that work, making it into the Suśrutasaṃhitā. Some scholars add to the difficulties by calling a later reviser, who may have added the Uttaratantra, Suśruta II or Suśruta the Younger.

A survey of the views on Suśruta's identity should include his father, Viśvāmitra. ²³
The Suśrutasamhitā itself contains a few passages mentioning father and son by name. ²⁴ Viśvāmitra's paternity with regard to the Suśruta who was a pupil of Dhanvantari is acknowledged in the Garudapurāna²⁵ and Bhāvaprakāśa. The latter treatise embellishes the story, telling that Viśvāmitra urged his son to travel to Kāśī in order to study there with Divodāsa Kāśirāja, called Dhanvantari; Suśruta complied with his father's request, taking with him one hundred sons of sages. ²⁶

The Vedic sage Viśvāmitra, already known from the Rgveda, is nowhere reported to have had a son called Suśruta, which did not prevent some scholars to regard him as Suśruta's father. ²⁷ The same applies to the Viśvāmitra of the Rāmāyaṇa, ²⁸ who imparts to Rāma and Lakṣmaṇa the knowledge about divine missiles (divyāstra); ²⁹ this Viśvāmitra, son of king Gādhi, ruled the kingdom of Kānyakubja for some time. ³⁰ The Viśvāmitra of the Mahābhārata is by some seen as the proper candidate, ³¹ or even identified with the Vedic sage and the Viśvāmitra of the Rāmāyaṇa. ³² Noteworthy in this context is the tale about a quarrel between Viśvāmitra and Vaśiṣṭha, incorporated in a chapter of the Kalpasthāna of the Suśrutasaṇhitā³³ as an explanation of the origin of spiders. This tale, not known from other sources, reflects traditions about Viśvāmitra absent from Vedic literature, ³⁴ but found in the epics. ³⁵ The Viśvāmitra figuring in the Kalpasthāna is still a king (nṛpavara) and has not yet acquired the status of a brāhmana. ³⁶

The references in the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* itself suggest that the epic Viśvāmitra is thought to be Suśruta's father. The later traditions, represented by Gayadāsa, Dalhana ³⁷ and Bhāvamiśra, are in agreement with this view.

The assertion by an Indian author that Suśruta's father was not the Vedic Viśvāmitra, but a person of the same name who lived in the period of the Upaniṣads, ³⁸ does not contribute to a solution of the problem of his identity. Neither does the hypothesis that he was the Viśvāmitra who is quoted as a medical authority. ³⁹

The appearance of Suśruta as Viśvāmitra's son in the Suśrutasaṃhitā may, in my view, be an expression of the wish to heighten the authority of the work by creating a genealogy connecting one of the protagonists with an ancient sage. 40 The same practice is characteristic of the Carakasamhitā.

Many Indian authors 41 are convinced that the sauśrutapārthavāḥ of the Gaṇapāṭha prove that the Suśruta of the Suśrutasamhitā was known in Pānini's time. Such a claim

is unfounded since neither this source nor the later grammatical treatises indicate that a medical authority is meant. 42

The Suśruta of the Bower MS, also often identified with the Suśruta of the saṃhitā, 43 is remarkable on account of his association with Kāśirāja, but the context differs entirely from that found in the Suśrutasaṃhitā. 44 The meeting of the sages takes place in the Himālayas, and, most importantly, surgery is not the subject of discussion. The conversation is about the properties of medicinal plants, and Suśruta makes inquiries about those attributed to garlic (laśuna). A group of verses, similar to the laśunakalpa of the Bower MS, expounded by Kāśirāja to Suśruta, is conspicuously absent from the Suśrutasamhitā. 45

The Suśruta of the *Upāyahrdaya* is, according to Yādavaśarman, ⁴⁶ described as a physician (suvaidyaka) with an expertise regarding medicines (bheṣajakuśala), who enumerates as the six objects (bheṣajadharma) of the science of medicinal herbs (oṣadhividyā): their names, properties (guṇa), taste (rasa), vīrya, saṇmipāta, and vipāka. ⁴⁷ This Suśruta is, in spite of his being not a surgeon, sometimes identified with the Suśruta of the *Suśrutasamhitā*. ⁴⁸

The Suśruta who, as a son and pupil of Śālihotra, became an expert on horses, is also by some regarded as identical with the surgical specialist of the Suśrutasamhitā. ⁴⁹ The reasoning employed in support is that Śālihotra was not actually Suśruta's father, but his guru, who addressed his pupil as son; ⁵⁰ more evidence is thought to be found in references to veterinary medicine in treatises on human medicine. ⁵¹ Others are undecided on the identity of this Suśruta ⁵² or consider him to be a different person. ⁵³

The majority of the persons called Suśruta who have been discussed are distinct from the Suśruta of the saṃhitā. Exceptions are those mentioned in Bhāvaprakāśa, Bhavisyapurāna, Garudapurāna, Bālarāmāyaṇa, and Naisadhacarita.

The Suśruta of the Suśrutasaṃhitā is not only depicted as a son of Viśvāmitra, but also as one of the pupils, ⁵⁴ actually the most important one, of Kāśirā ja Divodāsa Dhanvantari, who, surrounded by a group of sages ⁵⁵ in his āśrama, ⁵⁶ answers questions on the art of medicine, in particular on surgery.

The teaching takes place in one and the same hermitage throughout the *Suśruta-saṃhitā*, whereas, in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, Ātreya Punarvasu roams about the country. ⁵⁷ The location of this hermitage is not specified, which has led to speculations about the region where it may have been found.

Hemarājaśarman⁵⁸ supposed Divodāsa to have retired to some place in Northern India.⁵⁹ He argued that the first of the two arrangements of the seasons, as found in the Sūtrasthāna (Sū.6.7 and 10), points to a northern climate, colder than that of Kāśī. His second argument is drawn from the *Mahābhāṣya*, where the sauśrutāḥ are characterized as people wearing warm clothing (kutapavāsas).⁶⁰ Hemarājaśarman developed this theory because he was convinced that two Suśrutas should be distinguished: a Vṛddhasuśruta, author of a lost Sauśrutatantra, and a later Suśruta, who transformed this tantra and made it into the Suśrutasanthitā. The second, medical, arrangement of the seasons, regarded as agreeing with a southern climate, ⁶¹ derives in his opinion from the later Suśruta.

The layers of the Suśrutasamhitā

Hemarājaśarman belongs to the group of scholars who postulate two Suśrutas and, accordingly, attempt to isolate elements belonging to an older and a younger stratum of the Suśrutasamhitā. Apart from these two layers, some distinguish a third one, attributed to a reviser who is called Nāgārjuna by Dalhana. Others again assume the presence of two strata, ascribed to Suśruta and the reviser. A few scholars assume a succession of four layers, supposed to derive from Suśruta I, Suśruta II, the reviser, and, finally, Candrata, who wrote a Suśrutapāthaśuddhi.

This state of affairs, liable to give rise to confusion, can best be elucidated by giving a few examples, illustrating the reasonings of a number of authors and their ideas on the age to which particular elements of the *Suśrutasamhitā* belong.

A scholar who assumes that one and the same Suśruta first wrote a Sauśrutatantra, which was rewritten later and thus transformed into the Suśrutasaṃhitā, is R. Śāstrī. 62 He expresses as his opinion that the Suśrutasaṃhitā is based on the earlier surgical treatises by those four of the seven pupils of Divodāsa who are mentioned at the end of chapter four of the Sūtrasthāna. The concluding verse of this chapter says that the treatises of Aupadhenava, Aurabhra, Suśruta and Pauṣkalāvata form the basis (mūla) of other works on surgery (śalyatantra). This implies, according to Dalhaṇa, that the śalyatantras of the three pupils called Karavīrya, Gopurarakṣita and Vaitaraṇa, were considered to be less important than that of Suśruta. R. Śāstrī claims that the contents of all four authoritative tantras referred to were incorporated in the Suśrutasaṃhitā; the tantras themselves got irretrievably lost, apart from remnants preserved in quotations from the Sauśrutatantra or Vṛddhasuśruta. The fact that these quotations partially agree, partially disagree with the text of the Suśrutasaṃhitā makes R. Śāstrī compare the relationship between Suśruta's tantra and his saṃhitā with that between Vāgbhaṭa's Astāngasamgraḥa and Astāngahrdayasamhitā.

A scholar distinguishing four layers in the Suśrutasanıhitā is P.V. Sharma, 63 who put forward that Ādyasuśruta, the earliest one, also called Vrddhasuśruta, belongs to the period of the Upanisads. The description of the initiation of students (Su.Sū.2) is regarded as deriving from this age, although the text as it is known shows that changes have been introduced, as attested by the passage mentioning that, according to some authorities, śūdras may be admitted (Su.Sū.2.5). 64 P.V. Sharma highlights in particular agreements between passages from the Śvetāśvataropanisad and chapters one and nine of Suśruta's Śārīrasthāna.65 The Sāmkhya doctrines of Suśruta (Śā.1) betray in his view, in spite of their being mostly in line with Iśvarakrsna's Sāmkhvakārikā, influences from an earlier stage, represented by the Śvetāśvataropanisad. 66 Suśruta divides the twenty-four tattvas into a group of eight, belonging to prakrti, and a group of sixteen vikāras (Śā.1.6), whereas Īśvarakrsna adheres to a threefold classification: mūlaprakṛti, seven prakṛtivikṛtis, and sixteen vikṛtis.⁶⁷ One need not agree with P.V. Sharma on this point, since Suśruta's classification of the tattvas was not necessarily influenced by the Śvetāśvatar panisad; the same classification is found in the Mahābhārata, the Tattvasamāsa, 68 Aśvaghosa's Buddhacarita, and the Bhāgavatapurāna. 69

P.V. Sharma places Suśruta II in the second century A.D., during the reign of

Gautamīputra Śātakarni, a king of the Śātavāhana dynasty. This hypothesis is underpinned by several arguments that will be surveyed.

The Śātavāhanas were brāhmaṇas,⁷¹ and Gautamīputra Śātakarṇi is known as a king who sought to restore the dharna; ⁷² the brāhmaṇas and the lower classes were objects of his special care, while the kṣatriyas were repressed as a conceited class. The religious conditions found in the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* show that Hinduism was predominant, as to be expected during the Śātavāhana dynasty. The story about a conflict between Vaśiṣtha and Viśvāmitra (Su.Ka.8.90–93) reflects, in P.V. Sharma's opinion, Gautamīputra's hostility to the kṣatriyas. The rather numerous passages of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* which refer to a king, ⁷³ the chapter on the surgeon of the royal army (Sū.34), etc., are in favour of regarding Suśruta as a physician living during the reign of a powerful king. P.V. Sharma believes that Gautamīputra is mentioned as Vikrama in the first chapter of the Kalpasthāna (1.4), where enemies attacked by Vikrama may be alluded to. ⁷⁴

Many passages give evidence of developments within Hinduism in Suśruta's times. Śiva appears under various names: Bhava (U.57.16);⁷⁵ Īśāna (Ci.29.13; U. 39.270); Paśupati (Sū.19.23); Śūlin (U.37.4). The worship of Ambikā (U.39.270)⁷⁶ and Umā (U.37.4 and 5) is attested.⁷⁷ Nāgas are repeatedly referred to,⁷⁸ as well as yakṣas ⁷⁹ and their lord, Kubera (Sū.19.23) or Alakādhipati (Ka.7.61). The worship of Rāma and Kṛṣṇa began to flourish (Ci.30.27). ⁸⁰ Viṣṇu is mentioned under the name of Acyuta (Ci.13.26), ⁸¹ Sarasvatī as Vāgdevī (Ci.28.5). Temples (Ci.24.93: devāyatana) and images of deities (Śā.3.24: devatāpratimā) are known.

The dominance of Hinduism is shown by numerous references to the Vedas, sacrifices and priests; 82 brāhmaṇas, gurus and cows are to be revered; 83 the four varṇas are mentioned; 84 the gāyatrī 85 and śrīsūkta 86 are referred to; some varieties of the soma plant have names of Vedic origin; 87 a number of saṃskāras are mentioned; 88 tales from the Purāṇas are alluded to; 89 the jāti and gotra systems are referred to. 90

The presence of some terms indicates that Jainas and Buddhists are known.91

The prohibitions concerning pratibhū (bail), ⁹² sākṣitva (acting as a witness), ⁹³ samāhvāna (summoning), etc., ⁹⁴ reflect a society markedly differing from that in the age of the Guptas.

In support of his hypothesis that Suśruta II lived during the reign of Gautamīputra Śātakarni, P.V. Sharma advanced that this Suśruta must have belonged to Southern India, 95 since many geographical names connected with the South are found in the Suśrutasanhitā, 96 while they are for the larger part absent from the Carakasanhitā. 97 Names connected with other regions are, however, far from rare.

Relevant names of countries, mountains, rivers, etc., are: the Arbuda mountain ⁹⁸ (Ci.29.27; 30.37); the country called Avanti ⁹⁹ (Sū.45.21); Dakṣiṇāpatha ¹⁰⁰ (Ci.4. 29); the Devagiri mountain ¹⁰¹ (Ci.29.27); the Devasaha mountain (Ci.29.27); lake Devasunda (Ci.29.28; 30.30); the river Gangā (U.37.5); ¹⁰² the Himavant mountains (Sū.45.21; Ci.29.27); Kāṣmīra ¹⁰³ (Ci.29.30; 30.32); the river Kausikī ¹⁰⁴ (Ci.30.34); lake Kṣudrakamānasa ¹⁰⁵ (Ci.29.30; 30.32); the Mahendra mountains ¹⁰⁶ (Sū.45. 21; Ci.29.27); the Malaya mountains ¹⁰⁷ (Sū.45.21; Ci.29.27; 30.36); Nalasetu ¹⁰⁸ (Ci.30.36); the Pāṇaya country ¹⁰⁹ (Sū.13.13); the mountain Pāriyātra ¹¹⁰ (Sū.45.21; Ci.29.28); the country called Pautana ¹¹¹ (Sū.13.13); the mountain Sahya ¹¹² (Sū.13.13;

45.21; Ci.29.27); the river Sindhu (Ci.29.29; 30.30); ¹¹³ the mountain Śrīparvata ¹¹⁴ (Ci.29.27); the river Tāpī ¹¹⁵ (Ci.13.17); the people called Uttarakurus ¹¹⁶ (Ci.29.17); the Vindhya mountain range ¹¹⁷ (Sū.45.21; Ci.29.28); the river Vitastā ¹¹⁸ (Ci.29.28); the country of the Yavanas ¹¹⁹ (Sū.13.13).

In contrast with these views of P.V. Sharma, the majority of the scholars who studied the structure and contents of the Suśrutasaṃhitā agree that the work is due to two authors and consists of two layers, an early one, attributed to Suśruta, and a later one, deriving from a reviser, who not only rewroteparts of the text, but also added the Uttaratantra. This reviser is usually referred to as Nāgārjuna.

Some of the early Indologists, who studied MSS of the Suśrutasamhitā or its editio princeps, expressed disagreeing opinions on the structure of the text. F. Hessler, who translated the Suśrutasamhitā into Latin, ¹²⁰ regarded the whole work, its Uttaratantra included, as composed by one author, a very ancient Suśruta. ¹²¹ Others were inclined to see the parts in verse as older than those in prose, which were supposed to form a kind of commentary or complement. ¹²² An early scholar who clearly stated that the text of the Suśrutasamhitā consists of layers belonging to various ages and must be the result of a series of revisions was G. Liétard; he also stressed that the Uttaratantra cannot be but a kind of appendix of a later date. ¹²³

The opinions put forward on the identity and date of the author who revised an earlier surgical treatise attributed to Suśruta, and who has probably added the Uttaratantra, are very diverse. The arguments adduced in favour of a particular hypothesis are usually intimately connected with the elements of the Suśrutasaṃhitā thought to belong to this reviser. A survey of some of the opinions may be useful in clarifying the complications of the situation.

Atrideva ¹²⁴ suggested that the following features may be due to a reviser who lived during the Śātavāhana dynasty: the four different colours of the soil on which, dependent on the varņa of the woman in childbed, the delivery hut (sūtikāgāra) should be constructed (Śā.10.5); the four different kinds of timber from which, dependent on the varņa again, the hut and the bed should be made (Śā.10.5); the admission of śūdra students to the medical training (Sū.2.5); the reference to the feeding of brāhmaṇas after the preparation of a particular compound medicine (Ci.4.29); the veneration of (Bala)rāma and Krsna (Ci.30.27).

P.V. Sharma, who accepts the tradition that the reviser was a Nāgārjuna and places him in the Gupta period, mentions as elements added by him: ¹²⁵ passages indicating the presence of Pāśupatas, ¹²⁶ Kāpālikas ¹²⁷ and Tāntrikas; ¹²⁸ passages pointing to an increasing influence of astrology; ¹²⁹ the reference to the viṣakanyā; ¹³⁰ the use of the term viśikhā; ¹³¹ a number of geographical names; ¹³² the presence of the term kuhaka; ¹³³ the important place of inorganic substances in the materia medica; ¹³⁴ the use of enigmatic language. ¹³⁵

K.R. Srikanta Murthy ¹³⁶ mentions as elements due to the reviser, whom he supposes to be a Nāgārjuna who lived in the fourth or fifth century: the reference to Subhūti Gautama; ¹³⁷ the association of the surgeon with the king and his army; ¹³⁸ the use of mercury as a medicinal substance; the presence of murangī/murungī as a medicinal plant; ¹³⁹ the names of mountains and rivers found in Southern India.

S. Dasgupta, ¹⁴⁰ who accepts that a Nāgārjuna was the reviser, observed that an ardhaśloka, incorporated in the current text of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* (Ni.3.13ab), is quoted as a variant ascribed to Nāgārjuna in Gayadāsa's commentary (ad Ni.3.12), which may mean that it is an interpolation. ¹⁴¹ Another quotation from Nāgārjuna, found in Narahari's *Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana*, presents a variant of Ni.8.14 disagreeing with the reading accepted by Gayadāsa and Dalhaṇa, which is hard to explain, unless we assume that a later reviser changed Nāgārjuna's reading again. S. Dasgupta also suggested that the process of making additions to the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* continued until rather late times. He advanced that parts of the material on bastikriyā (Ci.37–38) were still unknown to Cakrapāṇidatta who, though very well conversant with the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, ignores this material in his commentary on the Siddhisthāna of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and does not use it in his own *Cakradatta*; this made S. Dasgupta infer that the relevant particulars were added in the twelfth century, since Dalhaṇa did know the material in question and explained it in his commentary.

As remarked earlier, the identity of the reviser, who may have added the Uttaratantra, is a controversial issue. Dalhana, the only commentator to mention his name, calls him Nāgārjuna, ¹⁴² but it is difficult to accept this tradition, which dates from a period in which Nāgārjuna had developed into a multifaceted legendary figure. This did, however, not prevent many scholars from expressing their opinion on the question which Nāgārjuna Dalhana may have had in mind. Others expressed their doubt on the trustworthiness of Dalhana's assertion or rejected it altogether.

A.F.R. Hoernle ¹⁴³ appears to have inclined to the view that the Nāgārjuna of Dalhana was the well-known Buddhist patriarch of that name, often regarded as a contemporary of Kaniska. Accordingly, the compendia of Agniveśa and Suśruta would, in this theory, have been revised at about the same time.

Jyotir Mitra 144 is one of the contemporary scholars to hold that the Buddhist philosopher Nāgārjuna redacted the *Suśrutasaṛnhitā*. S.K. Ramachandra Rao 145 put forward that the reviser may have been the great Mahāyāna master and alchemist Nāgārjuna, who lived in the first century A.D.

Gaṇanāthasena ¹⁴⁶ identified the reviser as Siddhanāgārjuna, author of *Lohaśāstra*, *Kakṣapuṭa*, etc., whom he assigned to the beginning of the Christian era. Similarly, G.P. Srivastava ¹⁴⁷ regarded the Buddhist chemist Nāgārjuna, placed by him in the first century B.C. or the first century A.D., as the reviser and the author of the Uttaratantra. Bāpālāl Vaidya ¹⁴⁸ and Umeśacandragupta ¹⁴⁹ claimed that Siddhanāgārjuna, assigned to the beginning of the Christian era, was the proper candidate. P.S. Sankaran ¹⁵⁰ chose the chemist Nāgārjuna who lived during the reign of Kaniṣka, R. Śāstrī ¹⁵¹ the Nāgārjuna who lived during the Śātavāhana dynasty.

J. Filliozat, ¹⁵² who accepted as a possibility that the reviser was indeed a Nāgārjuna, suggested that he may have been the author of the *Yogaśataka*, who lived in the sixth century, or the Nāgārjuna of the tenth century, mentioned by al-Bīrūnī. ¹⁵³ O.P. Jaggi ¹⁵⁴ showed to have a preference for the Nāgārjuna of al-Bīrūnī.

P.V. Sharma ¹⁵⁵ argues that the revision of the Suśrutasamhitā and the addition of the Uttaratantra are due to a Nāgārjuna who lived during the Gupta period, in the fifth century. His arguments are: the tantrayuktis (U.66) are borrowed from the

Kautilīya Arthaśāstra; ¹⁵⁶ the author of the Uttaratantra made use of Dṛḍhabala's contributions to the Carakasaṃhitā; Vāgbhaṭa was acquainted with the Uttaratantra. P.V. Sharma regards this fifth-century Nāgārjuna as the author of a Lohaśāstra and the Rasavaiśeṣikasūtra. An alternative solution is, according to the same scholar, that the name of Nāgārjuna became associated with the Suśrutasaṃhitā because the Nāgārjuna, known as a friend and counsellor of the Śātavāhana king Gautamīputra Śātakarni, was a contemporary of Suśruta II.

K.R. Srikanta Murthy ¹⁵⁷ employs some of the same arguments as P.V. Sharma. He regards a physician Nāgārjuna, who belongs to the fourth or fifth century, as the most probable candidate and credits him with a series of medical treatises. This Nāgārjuna was in his opinion a Buddhist scholar who had many followers known as the Nāgārjunīyas.

G. Hāldār 158 rejected Dalhaṇa's claim and developed his own theory by distinguishing an early Suśruta, author of the Sauśrutatantra, and a Navīnasuśruta, who revised this tantra and made it into the Suśrutasamhitā. He regarded the quotations from a Vṛddhasuśruta as evidence proving that an earlier version of the samhitā once existed. He was also convinced that the early tantra dealt with all eight divisions of āyurveda and that the Uttaratantra has not been added later, but already formed part, in a shorter version, of the original work. The Navīnasuśruta, who revised the tantra and expanded it, was in his view Kāpilabala, the son of Kapilabala, who lived during the reign of Kaniṣka in the second century A.D. 159 G. Hāldār repudiated Dalhaṇa's identification of the reviser, arguing that Nāgārjuna, as a Buddhist, would have left traces of Buddhist thought in the Suśrutasamhitā; the absence of these vestiges made him see Dalhaṇa's claim as untrustworthy.

Hariprapanna¹⁶⁰ is another author who categorically refuted Dalhana's claim, considering it to carry no value from a historical point of view. Atrideva¹⁶¹ also held that the reviser was not Nāgāriuna, but someone whose name remains unknown.

Hemarājaśarman 162 developed his own theory on the author of the Uttaratantra. He called attention to the absence of colophons, of the same type as those in the Carakasamhitā, pointing to a revision of the Suśrutasamhitā, 163 He also stressed that an interest in surgery cannot be detected in any of the writings attributed to authors called Nagarjuna. The presence of Susruta as a physician interested in the properties of medicinal substances in the Upāyahrdaya, 164 by some ascribed to Nāgārjuna, pleads against the latter's involvement in the Suśrutasamhitā. Moreover, Buddhist influences are entirely lacking in Susruta's work. Decisive evidence is, according to Hemarājaśarman, found in a MS of the Suśrutasamhitā, dating from the year 633 of the Newar era (A.D. 1511). The colophon of this MS reads, at the end of the Kalpasthāna, 'suśrute śalyatantre'; the colophon at the end of the appended nighantu has 'sauśrutyām samhitāyām mahottarāyām'. Hemarājaśarman concluded from this that the Uttaratantra was added to Suśruta's text by a Sauśrutācārya belonging to Suśruta's lineage; the nighantu must have been written by the same ācārya, because items found in the Uttaratantra only are incorporated in it. Hemara jasarman supposed that this acturya revised Susruta's text by filling in incomplete parts. He suggested that the Sauśrutācārya of the MS he studied was one of the sauśrutas mentioned in the Mahābhāsya. 165

Yādavaśarman 166 refused to acknowledge the Uttaratantra as a later addition to the Suśrutasamhitā. This scholar adduces as an argument in support of his thesis that the Harivamśa 167 describes Dhanvantari as having divided the āyurveda into eight branches and taught it to his pupils; this implies that he also gave instruction in the subjects dealt with in the Uttaratantra. The thesis that Dhanvantari's teachings, embodied in the Suśrutasamhitā, comprise all the divisions of āyurveda and not only surgery (śalya), is thought to be supported by the verse (Sū.1.21) where Dhanvantari proclaims that he has re-appeared in the world in order to teach śalya, along with the other angas 168 Dalhana's reference to the commentators Sukīra and Sudñra, who regarded particular verses of the Uttaratantra (U.58.58-65ab) as genuine (ārṣa), is considered to constitute additional evidence, as well as a verse of the Uttaratantra (U.40.7), where Kāśirāja defends his own view against that of other authorities. Yādavaśarman arrives at the conclusion that the original Uttaratantra got partially lost and was completed again by some later author (a Nāgārjuna or a member of Suśruta's school); an alternative possibility is that it was a rather short work, expanded later.

Yādavaśarman's exposition is acknowledged with approval by Sūramcandra. 169

Ideas similar to those of Yādavaśarman have been expressed by Bhishagratna, one of the translators of the Suśrutasaṃhitā into English. ¹⁷⁰ Although accepting a revision by Nāgārjuna, Bhishagratna considered the Uttaratantra to have formed an integral part of the original treatise. He asserted that it would be unthinkable for Divodāsa to fall short of his duties by omitting to instruct his pupils in all the divisions of medicine which are listed and specified in the first chapter of the Sūtrasthāna. ¹⁷¹ He added that the general plan of the work shows that the more elementary topics were dealt with in the first five sections, while the discussion of those requiring a more advanced knowledge were reserved for the Uttaratantra, which has the nature of a supplement. ¹⁷² Bhishagratna identified the reviser Nāgārjuna as the founder of the Mādhyamika school of Buddhist philosophy and placed him in the latter part of the fourth century B.C.

The Chronology Committee of the National Institute of Sciences of India concluded that a Nāgārjuna who belonged to the third or fourth century revised a much older work by Suśruta. ¹⁷³

Authors accepting that the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* was redacted by a Nāgārjuna, but who did not reach a decision as to his identity and date are: D. Chattopadhyaya, ¹⁷⁴ P. Cordier, ¹⁷⁵ R.C. Majumdar, ¹⁷⁶ P. Rāy c.s., ¹⁷⁷ and S.N. Sen. ¹⁷⁸

Some scholars assert that the text of the Suśrutasamhitā as known to us represents the version made by Candraṭa in the tenth century. ¹⁷⁹ This thesis, developed first by P.V. Sharma, makes the current text identical with Candraṭa's Suśrutapāṭhaśuddhi, which was, according to Candraṭa's own information, based on Jejjaṭa's commentary. ¹⁸⁰ Elements which, in P.V. Sharma's opinion, derive from Candraṭa are: a theoretical digression on the doṣas (Sū.24.11); ¹⁸¹ the concept of blood as the fourth doṣa; ¹⁸² the procedures for the purification of turbid water and the cooling down of water (Sū.45.17–19); ¹⁸³ the references to epidemic diseases as aupasargikaroga (Ni.5.34) ¹⁸⁴ and maraka (Sū.6.17); the mention of aśvabalā as a medicinal plant (Sū.46.256). ¹⁸⁵

As is obvious from the foregoing, it is rather generally assumed that we owe the main part of the Suśrutasaṃhitā or an earlier version of it to a historical person called Suśruta. This assumption, however, is not based on uncontrovertible evidence and may be illusory. The text of the Suśrutasaṃhitā does not warrant that the one who composed it was a Suśruta. The structure of the treatise shows without ambiguity that the author, who created a coherent whole out of earlier material, attributed the teachings incorporated in his work to Kāśirāja Divodāsa Dhanvantari, a mythic personality. ¹⁸⁶ Suśruta himself too is, as the son of Viśvāmitra, embedded in legendary tales. Both figures may have been selected to give authority to the treatise. Another reason for the choice of the name Suśruta may have been that it means 'the famous one' or 'who listened (to his teacher) in the right way'. ¹⁸⁷

The positions of Divodāsa Dhanvantari and Suśruta in the Suśrutasaṃhitā tally with those occupied by Ātreya Punarvasu and Agniveśa in the Carakasaṃhitā, which supports the thesis that they are literary fictions. ¹⁸⁸

The honorific epithets given to Suśruta are in favour of this view, ¹⁸⁹ since it is not likely that an author refers to himself as an ṛṣi ¹⁹⁰ (Ci.2.3), or as one who is śubha and vinayopapanna (Ni.7.3).¹⁹¹

The appearance of a king of Kāśī as a medical expert is not a unique feature of the Suśrutasaṃhitā. Other royal sages, connected with Kāśī, such as Vāmaka 192 and Vāryovida, are known from the Caraka- and Kāśyapasaṃhitā, though without being characterized as surgeons. Both Vāmaka and Vāryovida are conspicuously absent from the Suśrutasaṃhitā.

Kāšī is sometimes depicted as an ancient centre of medical learning, in particular surgery. ¹⁹³ A.F.R. Hoernle ¹⁹⁴ emphasized that at least the origin of ophthalmic surgery is placed by Indian tradition in Eastern India, in Bihar, being credited to Nimi, lord of Videha. Buddhist literature, on the other hand, does not picture Kāšī as a centre of instruction in surgical skills, but mentions, instead, Takṣaśilā. ¹⁹⁵

Dates assigned to the Suśrutasamhitā

Before turning to the structure and contents of the Suśrutasaṃhitāand the internal and external evidence on its layers and their dates, it may be useful to give a survey of the opinions in the secondary literature on the chronological positions of the one or more Suśrutas and the reviser of the saṃhitā.

One of the earliest scholars to give his opinion on the date of the Suśrutasamhitā was H.H. Wilson, who stated that the work cannot have the prodigious age, which Hindu fable assigns to it; ¹⁹⁶ he thought that, because Suśruta is mentioned in the Purānas, the ninth or tenth century was the most modern conjectural limit, while the style indicates a long anterior date. ¹⁹⁷ Later, he became acquainted with the discovery, made by F.R. Dietz in 1833, that Suśruta was known in the Muslim world during the rule of Hārūn al-Rashīd. ¹⁹⁸ J.A. Vullers ¹⁹⁹ misinterpreted Wilson's remarks, making him declare that Suśruta lived in the ninth or tenth century B.C. at the latest.

A. Stenzler²⁰⁰ reached about the same conclusions as H.H. Wilson. Stenzler pointed to the fact that Ibn Abī Usaybi'a explicitly states that Suśruta's treatise was

translated into Arabic by order of Yaḥyā ibn $\underline{K}\underline{h}\bar{a}$ lid, 201 who died in the beginning of the eighth century, which establishes the lower limit for Suśruta. Stenzler brought forward, as his own opinion, that the Suśrutasanhitā, considering its style and the metres used, might date from some centuries after Christ.

Ch. Lassen²⁰² advanced that the parts in verse of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* may belong to a slightly later period than the epics. A. Weber²⁰³ remarked that the work of Suśruta exhibits a certain affinity to the writings of Varāhamihira.

An author to give a very early date to the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, namely the tenth century B.C., was F. Hessler,²⁰⁴ whose arguments were convincingly refuted by A. Weber²⁰⁵ and G. Liétard.²⁰⁶ T.A. Wise²⁰⁷ placed Suśruta between the ninth and third centuries B.C.

An extreme view was expressed by E. Haas, ²⁰⁸ who tried to demonstrate that ā-yurveda heavily borrowed from the medical science of the Muslims, in its turn based on Greek medicine. He was convinced that the name Suśruta had developed from the Arabic equivalents of the name of the Greek father of medicine, Hippokrates. He denied that Suśruta was known in the Muslim world in the eighth century, and considered him to belong to the twelfth century. The reasonings of E. Haas were invalidated by A. Müller. ²⁰⁹

J. Jolly²¹⁰ brought forward that the Arabic translation of the Suśrutasamhitā proves that a work closely resembling the version known to us existed in the seventh century, while the style with its mixture of prose and verse is reminiscent of Varāhamihira.

A.F.R. Hoernle, ²¹¹ who distinguished an original Suśruta and a Suśruta II, the reviser who added the Uttaratantra, regarded the former as the pupil of a Kāśirāja who was a teacher in the university of Kāśī in Buddha's times. He argued that Suśruta was acquainted with the osteological system of Ātreya, ²¹² the leading professor of medicine at the university of Takṣaśilā in the time of Buddha or shortly before, which proves that the former was a younger contemporary of the latter. He moreover advanced that the author of the Śatapathabrāhmaṇa, placed in the sixth century B.C., was conversant with the doctrines of Suśruta. ²¹³ Hoernle proposed for these reasons the sixth century B.C. as the date of the original Suśruta.

G. Liétard²¹⁴ was cautious with regard to the chronological position of the Suśrutasaṃhitā in the extant form. This author refrained from assigning a date to the original work and gave as his estimate that the revised version or a treatise closely resembling it probably existed about the beginning of the Christian era.

A.A. Macdonell ²¹⁵ suggested that Suśruta cannot be later than the fourth century A.D., because the Bower MS contains passages not only parallel, but verbally agreeing with, passages in the Suśrutasaṇihitā. ²¹⁶

P. Cordier²¹⁷ accepted Hoernle's claim that the Suśruta of the Bower MS is identical with the one of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, which explains his conclusion that the saṃhitā in its original form is earlier than A.D. 400 and may date from the first century.

M. Vallauri²¹⁸ placed the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* in the fifth or sixth century A.D. O. Botto²¹⁹ prefers the period between the second and fourth centuries.

Indian authors ususally place the author of the original version of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, Suśruta I or Vrddhasuśruta, in early times. Dates mentioned are: 2000 to 3000 B.C.; ²²⁰ 2000 B.C.; ²²¹ the period between 1500 and 1000 B.C.; ²²² 1200 B.C.; ²²³ earlier than the period of the *Mahābhārata* (1000 B.C.); ²²⁴ 1000 B.C.; ²²⁵ not later than 1000 B.C.; ²²⁶ about 1000 B.C.; ²²⁷ the period of the *Atharvaveda*; ²²⁸ the period of the Upanişads; ²²⁹ one hundred years before Rāma; ²³⁰ a period up to three hundred years after the *Mahābhārata*; ²³¹ 1000 years before the beginning of the Śaka era; ²³² the sixth or seventh century B.C. as the lower limit; ²³³ at least two centuries before the birth of Buddha; ²³⁴ the period before the rise of Buddhism; ²³⁵ the period between 1000 and 600 B.C.; ²³⁶ earlier than Pāṇini; ²³⁷ earlier than Kātyāyana, dated in this case to the late sixth or early fifth century B.C.; ²³⁸ about 600 B.C.; ²³⁹ about 500 B.C.; ²⁴⁰ later than the sixth century B.C.; ²⁴¹ the last few centuries B.C. ²⁴²

The structure of the Suśrutasmhitā

The text of the Suśrutasamhitā itself indicates that the treatise consists of five sections (sthāna), with a total of 120 chapters, and an Uttaratantra in sixty-six chapters. ²⁴³ The treatise is said to be an abbreviation, for the use by human beings with a restricted life span, of the original āyurveda of Svayambhū (i.e., Brahmā) in 100,000 verses and 1,000 chapters, which already existed before this deity created the living beings. ²⁴⁴

The total number of chapters of the first five sthānas is not accidental. The same number, though differently distributed over the respective sections, is a characteristic feature of Carakasaṛṇhitā, Bhelasaṛṇhitā, Kāśyapasaṃḥitā (without the Khilasthāna), and Astāṇgaḥrdayasamhitā.

A table of contents, which includes the Uttaratantra, is found in chapter three of the $S\bar{u}$ trasthāna. ²⁴⁵

It has long been noticed that the way in which the extent and contents of the two distinct portions of the saṃhitā are treated may mean that the first and main portion on surgery is more original than the second one, the Uttaratantra, devoted to the other branches of āyurveda, which gives the impression of being an addition. ²⁴⁶ The concluding verses of the last chapter of the Kalpasthāna and the introductory verses of the first chapter of the Uttaratantra seem to support this view; if correct, this implies that all the references to the Uttaratantra in the preceding sections are due to a later author, the one who added the Uttaratantra. The problems relating to this subject will be discussed later in this section.

The Suśrutasamhitā is primarily a treatise on surgery (śalya),²⁴⁷ which for that reason occupies the first place²⁴⁸ on the list of the eight divisions (anga) of āyurveda. ²⁴⁹

The Sūtrasthāna is devoted to surgical subjects (chapters 5, 7–9, 11–14, 16–19, 21–23, 25–27, 37), basic medical concepts (1-4, 6, 10, 15, 20, 24, 35–36, 40, 42), signs indicating a bad prognosis (ariṣṭajñāna; 28–33), the duties of a royal physician (34), and dravyaguṇa (38–39, 41, 43–46). Differences with the Sūtrasthāna of the Carakasaṃhitā are the inclusion of a chapter on the teaching of āyurveda and the initiation of students (Sū.2), a subject dealt with in Caraka's Vimānasthāna, chapters on ariṣṭas, discussed in Caraka's Indriyasthāna, and the absence of chapters describing particular groups of diseases.

The Nidanasthana is distinct from the corresponding section of the Carakasamhita

in being much longer and describing a larger number of diseases. The disorders discussed are for a large part selected because they belong to the domain of surgery, but this criterion does not fully explain the contents. Diseases like kuṣṭha (Ni.5) and prameha (Ni.6), the only ones also dealt with in Caraka's Nidānasthāna, form part of kāyacikitsā; the same applies to vātavyādhi (Ni.1). Remarkable is the presence of a chapter on mukharoga (Ni.16), one of the subjects of śālākya.²⁵⁰ The chapter on kṣudrarogas (Ni.13) was already a problem to the commentators, since the Nidānasthāna is, in general, about major diseases (mahāvyādhi).²⁵¹

The Śārīrasthāna corresponds partly to the same section of the Carakasamhitā. It differs by the incorporation of chapters on the marmans, sirās, phlebotomy, and the dhamanīs; some of these subjects are discussed in Caraka's Vimānasthāna.

The Cikitsāsthāna opens with two chapters on the treatment of vraṇas. Chapter three is devoted to the treatment of bhagna, while its aetiology is found in chapter fifteen of the Nidānasthāna. Chapters four to twenty-two are about the therapy of the diseases discussed, in the same order, in chapters one to fourteen and sixteen of the Nidānasthāna. Chapter twenty-three, on śopha, has parallels in Caraka's Sūtra- and Cikitsāsthāna. The contents of chapter twenty-four are similar to those of chapter five of Caraka's Sūtrasthāna. Chapter twenty-five is without a parallel in Caraka's treatise. Chapters twenty-six to thirty are about vājīkaraṇa and rasāyana, 252 which are the subjects of the first two chapters of Caraka's Cikitsāsthāna. Chapters thirty-one to forty are concerned with pañcakarman and related topics, discussed in some chapters of the Sūtrasthāna and in the Siddhisthāna of the Carakasamhitā.

The Kalpasthāna is dissimilar from the same section of the Carakasaṃhitā and is about toxicology (viṣatantra), ²⁵³ a subject to which one chapter of Caraka's Cikitsāsthāna is devoted.

The Uttaratantra is about subjects belonging to śālākya (chapters one to twenty-six), kaumārabhṛtya (chapters twenty-seven to thirty-eight), kāyacikitsā (chapters thirty-nine to fifty-nine), and bhūtavidyā (chapters sixty to sixty-two). 254 The concluding chapters are concerned with rasabhedavikalpa, svasthavṛtta, the tantrayuktis, and doṣabhedavikalpa (chapters sixty-three to sixty-six), subjects treated in the Sūtra-and Siddhisthāna of the *Carakasamhitā*.

The text of the Suśrutasamhitā. Quotations from Suśruta

The text of the Susrutasamhitā presents many problems deserving serious attention. A critical edition, highly desirable, does not exist so far. 255 The remarks on the text, its variants and alternative readings, etc., found in the commentaries of Gayadāsa, Cakrapāṇi and Dalhaṇa, provide valuable information and show that there were numerous disagreements on the correct readings, the genuineness or spuriousness of particular passages in verse or prose, the order of the chapters, etc.

The extant text exhibits features which unmistakably indicate that earlier traditions and treatises were known. Diverging opinions, held by various unnamed authorities, are repeatedly referred to.²⁵⁶ The school of the vedavādinah is mentioned once.²⁵⁷ Opinions attributed to particular authorities do occur,²⁵⁸ but are less frequent than in

the Carakasamhitā.

The Suśrutasamhitā is undeniably the work of an author who put to use and drew on a number of sources at his disposal. The commentaries contain hints pointing to at least part of these sources. Among them were the works of Bhāluki and Bhoja, employed in composing the chapters on surgical instruments, as is attested by quotations in the commentaries of Cakrapāṇi and Dalhaṇa. These quotations give evidence of a much more detailed knowledge on the subject in the treatises of these predecessors. ²⁵⁹ Cakrapāṇi remarks that a particular verse of the Suśrutasaṃhitā²⁶⁰ has been borrowed from Bhoja, while Gayadāsa identifies a verse ²⁶¹ as coming from another treatise.

The largebody of quotations from Suśruta, eitherby name or anonymously, in commentaries and later medical treatises, should also be taken into consideration in studies concerning the text of the samhitā and the versions that circulated in various periods.

The Mādhavanidāna, for example, contains many verses, taken from the Suśruta-saṃhitā, which present variants. Part of these variants are recorded in Dalhaṇa's Nibandhasaṃgraha, but others are absent there and would have remained unknown otherwise. The same applies to the quotations in the Madhukośa on the Mādhavanidāna. Another treatise containing quotations from Suśruta which present variants, as well as a number of untraceable passages in prose and verse attributed to Suśruta, is Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya. 263

Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya presents a number of unidentified quotations from Suśruta. ²⁶⁴ In spite of their being unidentified by the editors of the text, they cannot be regarded as evidence for an unknown version of the Suśrutasaṃhitā without a large dose of caution, since part of them can be traced and are closely related to readings of the current text. ²⁶⁵ Some of the passages ascribed to Suśruta are noteworthy and interesting. One verse is almost identical with a śloka of the Carakasaṃhitā. ²⁶⁶ Two other verses reproduce a recipe, called pippalyādigḥṛta, found in Tīsaṭa's Cikitsā-kalikā; this prescription is probably attributed to Suśruta because a pippalyādigḥṛta, containing largely the same ingredients, but differently worded, does form part of the Suśrutasaṃhitā. ²⁶⁷ More difficult to explain is the attribution of two verses from the Suśrutasaṃhitā to Ātreya. ²⁶⁸

Suśruta's treatise may have been known in versions that differed as to their extent. A Laghusuśruta is recorded in a list of MSS. ²⁶⁹ A Kṛśasuśruta is quoted in Meghadeva's commentary on Mādhavakavi's Mādhavadravyaguṇa. The Navīnasuśruta, cited by Vallabhabhaṭṭa in his commentary on Śārngadhara's Triśatī, ²⁷⁰ is obviously the author of the Uttaratantra, because the quotation refers to one of the visama ivaras. ²⁷¹

The quotations from Vrddhasuśruta, which are often regarded as being from the early, original work, are actually from a version that included the Uttaratantra. These quotations are found in the Āyurvedābdhisāra, Bhā vaprakāśanighaṇṭu, Bhāvaprakāśa, Bhō janakutūhala, Bhāvaprakāśa, Bhō janakutūhala, Bhāvaprakāśa, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Bhāvaprakāśa, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasaṃgraha, Vibandhasamanidana, Vibandhasamanidan

the Asṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā, ²⁸⁶ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta's commentary on the Siddhayoga, ²⁸⁷ Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya, ²⁸⁸ Vācaspati's Ātankadarpaṇa, ²⁸⁹ Vallabhabhaṭṭa's commentary on Śārngadhara's *Triśat*ī, ²⁹⁰ and Vijayarakṣita's part of the Madhukośa. ²⁹¹ The Sauśrutatantra, mentioned by Dalhana, ²⁹² is simply the Suśrutasamhitā.

The reviser of the Suśrutasamhitā and the position of the Uttaratantra

As already repeatedly stated, the Suśrutasaṃhitā is usually regarded as a work consisting of two or more strata, which belong to different periods. The tradition that an original treatise by a historical Suśruta was later revised and transformed into the Suśrutasaṃhitā as we know it is already found in the commentaries of Cakrapāṇidatta and Dalhaṇa. The identity of this reviser, his date, and the question whether or not the same reviser added the Uttaratantra to an earlier version ending with the Kalpasthāna, are controversial issues.

The very first mention of a reviser (pratisarııskartar) is found in the commentary of Cakrapāṇi (ad Su.Sū.1.1–2), who discusses the characteristics of sūtras to be ascribed to him. Dalhaṇa repeats Cakra's statements, adding that the reviser was Nāgārijuna. These two references are the only direct testimonies of the tradition that an older text was later expanded. The so-called pratisarııskartṛṣūtras, ²⁹³ and the classification of the sūtras in general, were, however, already disputed issues in the times of Cakra and Dalhaṇa, and even earlier, in the time of Gayadāsa, as is evident from the commentaries.

The question discussed concerns the nature of the statement at the beginning of a chapter: "we are going to set forth the chapter on ..., as bhagavant Dhanvantari has expounded it". The opinions are divided on the problem whether this type of statements should be attributed to Suśruta himself who addresses his pupils or to a pratisaniskartar. Gayadāsa, Cakrapāṇi and Palhaṇa held them to be pratisaniskartṣsūtras. This decision appears to be based on the belief that the Suśrutasaṇṇhitā possesses the same structure as the Carakasaṇhitā, which is a recast of an earlier tantra. Many recent scholars expressed a similar opinion, claiming that the Suśrutasaṇhitā is a recast of an earlier Sauśrutatantra.

A verse, often discussed in this context, is Su.Sū.4.9. This verse refers back to a śloka that precedes it (Su.Sū.4.7), which declares that a physician should study more than one śāstra; Sū.4.9 states that the Aupadhenava-, Aurabhra-, Sauśruta- and Pauskalāvatatantra form the basis of the other śalyatantras. The verse is variously interpreted; some regard it as proving that a Sauśrutatantra, now lost, once existed, while others suggest that the Suśrutasamhitā incorporates the contents of the four tantras mentioned. In my view, the stanza does not point to a Sauśrutatantra, distinct from the Suśrutasamhitā, but to that saṃhitā itself; otherwise, it would conflict with Su.Sū.4.7. Another point to be considered is that the verse mirrors the references of the Carakasamhitā to the treatises composed by each of the pupils of Ātreya Punarvasu.

The quotations from *Vṛddhasuśruta*, adduced in the same context by many authors, do not allow us to conclude to the early existence of a work that preceded the *Suśruta-samhitā*.

The Suśrutasaṃhitā is most probably the work of an unknown author who drew much of the material he incorporated in his treatise from a multiplicity of earlier sources from various periods. This may explain that many scholars yield to the temptation to recognize a number of distinct layers and, consequently, try to identify elements belonging to them. As we have seen, the identification of features thought to belong to a particular stratum is in many cases determined by preconceived ideas on the age of the strata and their supposed authors.

It seems therefore to be more sensible and profitable to examine each verse and prose passage on its own merits, without immediately proceeding to attribute them to a particular author to whom we owe a particular layer of the Suśrutasamintā.

In general, it appears to be hazardous to claim that concepts, terms, etc., which convey the impression of being old, belong to an ancient stratum, for they may well have been used deliberately in order to give a particular flavour to the text.

In the same way as the *Carakasaṃhitā*, but less pronouncedly, the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* displays a tendency to associate medical science with the Vedas. The work begins with a chapter entitled 'the origin (utpatti) of the veda'. This veda, i.e, the āyurveda, is said to be an upāṇga of the *Atharvaveda*.²⁹⁴ The four Vedas are referred to as well. ²⁹⁵ A trend conflicting with the Vedic connotations is the appearance of Dhanvantari, ²⁹⁶ reborn as Kāṣirāja Divodāsa. In the mythic tale about the transmission of āyurveda, ²⁹⁷ he received the āyurveda from Indra, who received it from the Aṣvins, who, in their turn, were instructed by Prajāpati, whose teacher was Brahmā, the original promulgator of the science.²⁹⁸

The material relating to myths, legends, etc., found in the *Suśrutasarṛihitā*, is thus clearly of a composite nature, drawn from various sources, and partly embellished with details not occurring elsewhere. ²⁹⁹

Some authors, who want to lay stress on the scientific attitude of Suśruta, assert that he tried to cast off whatever shackles of priestly domination remained at his time. ³⁰⁰ This claim is unjustified, since many passages give evidence of the prominent position of brāhmaṇas. One of these passages declares that a physician should be subservient to the priest (purohita), for it was Brahmā who expounded the eight-limbed āyurveda. ³⁰¹ Another verse, from the same chapter, says that the position of a physician is comparable to that of the adhvaryu at a sacrifice. ³⁰²

The nature of the text of the Suśrutasaṃhitā has, as we have seen, given rise to a series of hypotheses regarding its layers and their dates. The search for elements belonging to these layers has not led to generally accepted results. The disagreements are legion. It may therefore be useful to concentrate first on those features which appear to be late and are probably due to the activities of a reviser. The terminus ante quem for the current text might thus be determined as a first step to the elucidation of the chronological position of the earlier text available to the one who reworked it.

The hypothesis that the text of the Suśrutasaṃhitā as we know it is due to a reviser who also added the Uttaratantra is commonly accepted as a fact, but this does not relieve us of the obligation to examine the evidence.

The position of the Uttaratantra is a major issue to be taken into account. Some

of the introductory verses of this section are usually interpreted as proving it to be a later addition to a more original treatise ending with the Kalpasthāna. These verses refer to sources for the Uttaratantra, among which are the śālākyatantra of king Videha and the six treatises on kāyacikitsā written by great sages. 303 This mention of sources is unique and means that the treatise of Videha 304 and the tradition about the treatises written by the six pupils of Ātreya Punarvasu were known to the author. The type of information given suggests indeed that the Uttaratantra is an appendix not forming part of the original work. Cakrapāṇi and Dalhaṇa however, who point to a pratisaṇskartar of the Suśrutasaṃhitā at the beginning of their commentaries, are silent on the question whether or not this person added the Uttaratantra. The fact that the structure of the chapters of the Uttaratantra is identical with that of the chapters of the preceding sections cannot resolve the issue, for the same similarity is found in the chapters that Drdhabala contributed to the Carakasamhitā.

The problem whether or not the Uttaratantra is a later addition, along with the problem of its date, might be elucidated if it could be demonstrated that its author was acquainted with Drdhabala's revised and completed version of the Carakasamhitā.

Some scholars claim, unfortunately without presenting evidence, that Dṛḍhabala's contributions to the Carakasaṃhitā are incorporated in the Uttaratantra. 305 A comparison of some views expressed by Dṛḍhabala and the corresponding opinions found in the Uttaratantra create doubt regarding the validity of this claim. Dṛḍhabala follows Karāla in distinguishing ninety-six eye diseases, whereas Nimi's number 306 of seventy-six is accepted in the Uttaratantra. Dṛḍhabala accepts the four types of diseases of the ears, recognized by Caraka, while the Uttaratantra acknowledges a number of twenty-eight. The number of tantayuktis described in the Uttaratantra disagrees with Dṛḍhabala's number. Some more among the numerous differences concern the types of yonivyāpad, trsnā, hikkā, and other disorders.

These few examples may suffice to show that it is unjustified, without data based on a careful and detailed comparative study, to assert that the author of the Uttaratantra made use of Drdhabala's work. 307

The evidence collected so far is slightly in favour of considering the Uttaratantra as an addition to an earlier work. Its chronological position is difficult to determine. As we have seen, the date of Dṛḍhabala (A.D. 300–500) is not decisive in elucidating that of the Uttaratantra. Other clues that might establish an upper limit are hardly available. 308 Thelower limit presents difficulties as well and depends on the question whether or not the authors of Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha and Aṣṭāṅgaḥrḍayasaṃhitā were acquainted with the Uttaratantra and made use of it. 309 A.F.R. Hoernle's contention that the author of the Nāvanītaka, which forms part of the Bower MS, borrowed from the Suśrutasaṃhitā, its Uttaratantra included, is not based on solid evidence.

The author who probably added the Uttaratantra may have changed and expanded the text of the first five sections of the Suśrutasaṃhitā. The efforts at identifying these changes and additions have, in general, not led to results on which a consensus has been reached. Less liable to conflicting interpretations are the references to the Uttaratantra in preceding sections. ³¹⁰ Noteworthy too are some verses on arists which mention diseases dealt with in the Uttaratantra. ³¹¹

The identity of the author who probably revised the Suśrutasamhitā and added the Uttaratantra is unknown. Nevertheless, many scholars are convinced that his name was Nāgārjuna. The main lead on this point is a remark in Dalhaṇa's Nibandhasamgraha. It is difficult to give credit to this tradition from a period in which Nāgārjuna had developed into a legendary figure to whom a large number of very diverse works were ascribed, the more so since Cakrapāni refrains from identifying the reviser.

S. Dasgupta³¹³ suggested that Dalhaṇa, by saying that the pratisaṃskartar was Nāgārjuna eva, may have meant, as indicated by the particle eva, that there have been other revisions; he added that the hopelessly muddled condition of the readings of the Suśrutasaṃhitā is such that there can be no doubt that from time to time many hands were in operation on the work. Gaṇanāthasena ³¹⁴ came to the contrary conclusion and brought forward that the particle eva implies that Dalhaṇa did not acknowledge any other reviser than Nāgārjuna.

A remarkable, but unfortunately untrustworthy, piece of information, found in some editions of <code>Dalhaṇa</code>'s commentary, 315 says that, at the time of the struggle against the Buddhists (more than a thousand years ago), the world-famous and excellent rasāyana expert, Siddhanāgārjuna, who was a protector of the Buddhists, revised the <code>Sauśrutatantra</code>, divided it into five sections, and added the Uttaratantra; since that time, the work is called <code>Suśrutasaṃhitā</code>. This additional information is undoubtedly a later interpolation. 316

The identification of the reviser as a Nagarjuna may be bound up with quotations from Nāgār juna and a treatise called Nāgārjunīva, found in Gayadāsa's commentary on the Nidānasthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā. This commentator cites (ad Su.Ni.3.12) an ardhaśloka of Nāgārjuna on the disorders called śarkarā, sikatā and bhasmarneha. This ardhaśloka, not regarded by Gayadāsa as forming part of Suśruta's text, was interpreted as unquestionably belonging to it by Dalhana, who does not refer to Nāgārjuna as its source. This may mean that Gayadāsa's text is more original and contains less interpolations. The quotation, identical with Su.Ni.3.13ab of the current text, is the more interesting since it, according to Dalhana, mentions a type of mūtrāghāta described in the Uttaratantra (Su.U.58.20-21). 317 This state of affairs suggests that Gayadasa was acquainted with a version of Suśruta's work associated with a Nāgāriuna, but did not accept the changes and additions of this Nagarjuna as authoritative. Gayadasa also quotes (ad Su.Ni.8.4) some stanzas about the types of mūdhagarbha which are related to the prose description of the Suśrutasarnhitā. These verses from a work called Nāgārjunī ya indicate that a Nagarjuna was associated with surgery. The opinions which Gayadasa ascribes to him are rejected in the now current text of the Suśrutasamhitā, which makes it improbable that this Nagarjuna was the reviser.

Noteworthy too are references to the nāgārjunīyāḥ, probably a school of interpreters of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, who adopted their own readings of the text. 318

The relative chronological positions of the Carakasamhitā and Suśrutasamhitā

The period of composition of the first five sections of the Suśrutasamhitā is a disputed issue. Several views found in the secondary literature have already been discussed, as

well as Cakrapāṇi's remark that Dṛḍhabala made use of the Suśrutasaṃhita in completing the Carakasaṃhitā, which, if correct, means that the first five sections of the Suśrutasaṃhitā are earlier than A.D. 300–500. The problem of the relative chronological positions of the Carakasaṃhitā before its revision and completion by Dṛḍhabala and the Suśrutasaṃhitā before its revision and the addition of the Uttaratantra has been discussed by a number of scholars.

F. Hessler claimed that Suśruta must be earlier than Caraka, because the latter mentions Dhanvantari. This thesis was brushed aside, too easily, by G. Liétard, ³¹⁹ who interpreted the Dhanvantari of the Carakasaṛṇḥitā as a mythical being, which is only justifiable for the reference to him as the god of healing (Ca.Vi.8.11). The Dhanvantari, mentioned in the Śārīrasthāna (6.21), is a different person, obviously a medical specialist, whose theory on embryonic development is accepted as authoritative. The same theory, declaring that all the parts of the embryo arise simultaneously, is expounded by Dhanvantari in the Suśrutasaṃḥitā and acknowledged there as the final verdict on the issue (Su.Śā.3.32). This need not mean that the Suśrutasaṃḥitā was known to Caraka, but shows that particular teachings were associated with Dhanvantari, and that a medical school recognizing him as their authority may already have been in existence.

The Carakasaṃhitā does not only mention a medical authority called Dhanvantari, but also the dhānvantarīyāḥ, i.e., those belonging to the school of Dhanvantari. The two references to them are found in the chapter on the treatment of gulma, which derives from Caraka, not from Dṛḍhabala. The treatment of a ripe gulma is described as being part of the domain of the dhānvantarīyāḥ, who are experienced in puncturing (vyadha), cleansing (śodhana), and wound-healing (ropaṇa) (Ca.Ci.5.44); they are also said to be experts in cauterization (dāha; Ca.Ci.5.63cd). These passages point to the abilities of surgical specialists in general, without implying an acquaintance with the Suśrutasaṇṇhitā, 321 which is proved by the fact that Suśruta disagrees with Caraka and rejects the occurrence of ripening (pāka) in cases of gulma. Caraka particular school of surgeons, accepting a Dhanvantaritantra as their textbook, in mind, or surgeons in general. Caraka had a particular school of surgeons accepting a Dhanvarare, in spite of the evidence to the contrary, convinced that the dhānvantarīyāh of the Carakasamhitā are surgeons adhering to the teachings of the Suśrutasamhitā.

The arguments adduced in defending Suśruta's anteriority to Caraka are usually thought to be unconvincing. Most scholars regard Suśruta as later than Caraka. ³²⁶ The general impression that the Suśrutasamhitā is more systematic and scientific than the Carakasamhitā has led some to the conclusion that the former must be posterior to the latter. ³²⁷ Others advanced that the stanzas which the Suśrutasamhitā has in common with the Carakasamhitā prove that the latter preceded the former. ³²⁸ Although this argument is not conclusive in itself, because it can also be used in support of the opposite thesis, it is remarkable that the correspondences are mostly found in the Uttaratantra. ³²⁹

The version of Sāṃkhya found in the Suśrutasaṃhitā is very often interpreted as later than the version of the Carakasaṃhitā, thus testifying to the posteriority of Suśruta.

An interesting detail, noticed by Atrideva, 330 may throw light on the relationship between Caraka- and Suśrutasamhitā. A passage occutring in the višikhānupravešanīya

chapter of the Suśrutasaṃhitā (Sū.10.4) rejects the view, said to be held by some, that the number of means to acquire knowledge about diseases is three, replacing this number by six. This may show familiarity with the doctrines of the Carakasaṃhitā, where indeed the three means referred to are described (Ca.Ci.25.22). Caution is, however, required, for it cannot be excluded that the Carakasaṃhitā shared the doctrine in question with other treatises belonging to the same school.

The Hārītasaṃhitā shows that, at least in the tradition to which this treatise belongs, Caraka was held to have preceded Suśruta. Hārīta's pariśiṣṭādhyāya describes Caraka as belonging to the Kṛtayuga, Suśruta to the Dvāparayuga.

Suśruta outside India

The references to Suśruta known from outside India do not shed additional light on the chronological position of his samhitā.

Suśruta was known to the Khmer king Yaśovarman I (A.D. 889 to about 900); ³³¹ one of his inscriptions compares the beneficial effects of the king's moral exhortations to those of Suśruta's medical treatments. ³³²

The Suśrutasaṃhitā was rendered into Persian or Arabic by an Indian physician who is often called Manka, 333 who lived at the court during the reign of the 'Abbāsid caliph Hārūn al-Raṣḥīd (A.D. 766–809). This translation was made at the request of the Barmakid Yahyā ibn Khālid. 334

Arabic authors referring to Suśruta or quoting him are: ³³⁵ 'Alī ibn Sahl al-Ṭabarī in his Firdaws al-ḥikma, ³³⁶ Ibn al-Nadīm in his Fihrist al-'ulūm, ³³⁷ Wādih al-Ya'qūbī, ³³⁸ al-Rāzī in his Kitāb al-ḥāwī, ³³⁹ al-Bīrūnī in his Kitāb al-ṣaydana fī'l-ṭibb, ³⁴⁰ and Ibn Abī Usaybi'a. ³⁴¹

The Suśrutasamhitā was one of the souces of the Ma'din al-Shifā'. 342

Suśruta is known as a medical authority in Tibetan literature, where his name is rendered as Legs-thos. He is the first one on a list of twenty-four great sages (maharṣi; Tibetan: draṅ-sroṅ chen-po) in the *Mahāvyutpatti*. The Tibetan translation of Śālihotra's *Aśvāyurveda* mentions him as the son and pupil of Śālihotra. The Tibetan translation of Śālihotra.

Other works atribued to Suśruta

Apart from the Suśrutasaṃhitā, a Lohatantra is ascribed to Suśruta. The only references to this treatise are found in Sureśvara's Lohasarvasva.

G. Hāldār³⁴⁵ regarded the *Nāvanītaka(saṃhitā)*, which forms part of the Bower MS, as a work of Suśruta; he claimed that the preserved text represents a revision of the lost original by a Buddhist author.

The materia medica of the Suśrutasamhitā

Names of plants and vegetable substances occurring in the Suśrutasaṃhitā,³⁴⁶ but absent from the Carakasaṃhitā, are: ³⁴⁷ abda³⁴⁸ (Ci.38.51; Ka.3.17; U.40.67; 52.14); abhra³⁴⁹ (U.10.4); abja³⁵⁰ (U.40.74; 50.23); ādārī³⁵¹ (U.44.19); agastya³⁵²

 $(S\bar{u}.46.281 \text{ and } 282)$; agavrttik \bar{a}^{353} (Ka.7.29); ahimsr \bar{a}^{354} (S $\bar{u}.37.3$; U.21.15; 45.33); ahipuspa 355 (Ci.17.28); ajalomī³⁵⁶ (U.60.47); ajaruhā³⁵⁷ (Ka.1.78); alasāndra³⁵⁸ (Sū.46.35); alavaṇā³⁵⁹ (Sū.38.16; Ci.17.34); amara³⁶⁰ (Ci.37.11 and 23; 38.60, 61, 64, 68); amaradruma³⁶¹ (Ci.37.36; U.62.27); amarāhva³⁶² (U.52.14); amarakāstha³⁶³ (U.11.8); amaravarā yudhasāhva ya³⁶⁴ (Ci.17.41); āmaya³⁶⁵ (U.39.256); ambhoda³⁶⁶ (Ci.38.44; U.39.222 and 224; 40.66; 41.50); ambhodhara³⁶⁷ (U.52.31); ambhoja³⁶⁸ (Sū.6.27); ambhoruha³⁶⁹ (U.26.14); āmisa³⁷⁰ (Ci.37.15; U.51.50); amrtādvaya³⁷¹ (Ci.37.20); añjanakī³⁷² (Ci.18.34); antrapācaka³⁷³ (Ka.2.5); aņu³⁷⁴ (U.19.13); apehivātā³⁷⁵ (Ci.18.4); āranyamāsa³⁷⁶ (Sū.46.36); ārevata³⁷⁷ (Sū.38.64; Ci.5.8; 9.10; 10.12; 20.51; U.12.42; 55.47); arkaparnī³⁷⁸ (Ka.8.106); arkapuspī³⁷⁹ (Sū.46.262; Śā.10.69); ārtagala³⁸⁰ (Sū.38.10; 39.7; Ci.7.6; U.9.19; 17.51; 53.11); asanapuspaka³⁸¹ (Sū.46.8); asitamuskaka 382 (Sū.11.11); asitasārivā 383 (U.12.48); asitasarsapa 384 (Sū. 46.50); aśuklacandana³⁸⁵ (U.50.18); aśvabalā³⁸⁶ (Sū.46.256 and 261; Ci.1.113; 6.8); aśvahantrī³⁸⁷ (Ci.9.28); aśvamūtrī³⁸⁸ (U.42.94); atimukta(ka)³⁸⁹ (Sū.45.120; Ci.31.5; U.45.16; 60.35); atiyava³⁹⁰ (Sū.46.43); avaguttha³⁹¹ (Sū.46.221); bahupattraka³⁹² (U.21.9); bahuputrā ³⁹³ (Ka.1.68); bākucī ³⁹⁴ (Ci.9.32; 25.18); bāna ³⁹⁵ (Sū.6.36); bandhūka 396 (Sū.6.36; Ka.1.72); barhistha 397 (Ci.18.21; U.11.6 and 8; 39.230; 62.23 and 27); bāspadvaya³⁹⁸ (Ci.4.32); bhadrā³⁹⁹ (Ci.38.60); bhadrakāstha⁴⁰⁰ (Ka.7.23; U.21.22); bhadrarohinī⁴⁰¹ (U.40.105); bhallūka⁴⁰² (Sū.38.12; Ci.7.6 and 10); bhā $nd\bar{i}^{403}$ (Ci.31.5); bhillota(ka) 404 (Ci.24.15; U.17.40); bhīruka405 (Sū.45.149 and 151); bhrngavrksa⁴⁰⁶ (U.35.4); bhujangapuspa⁴⁰⁷ (U.46.17; 47.32 and 38); bhūmikadamba⁴⁰⁸ (Ci.2.90); bhūtakeśī⁴⁰⁹ (U.60.47); bimbīlota⁴¹⁰ (U.12.11); bimbītikā⁴¹¹ (Sū.46.249); brahmacārinī 412 (Sū.19.29); cakramarda 413 (Ci.9.12 and 13); campaka 414 (Sū.28.11; 45.12; 46.288; Ci.29.236; Ka.6.20); carmarī⁴¹⁵ (Ka.2.5); carmavrksa⁴¹⁶ (Ci.11.10); chagalāntrī⁴¹⁷ (Sū.38.29; 39.4; 46.249); citraphalā⁴¹⁸ (U.32.8; 58.66); coca⁴¹⁹ (Sū.38.24; Ci.17.15; Ka.6.3); corakapattra⁴²⁰ (Sū.38.48); cūta⁴²¹ (Sū.6.27; Ci.9.23; 25.32 and 43); dadhināman⁴²² (U.50.27); dala⁴²³ (Ka.3.17); dāsīkurunta ka^{424} (Sū.38.6); devadālī⁴²⁵ (Sū.39.5; Ka.7.35 and 36); devakāstha⁴²⁶ (U.18.100; 26.22; 52.15); dhattūra⁴²⁷ (Ci.17.37; Ka.7.52 and 53); dīrghamūlā⁴²⁸ (Sū.38.45); dīrghapattra⁴²⁹ (Sū.45.150 and 154); dīrghavrnta⁴³⁰ ((Ci.1.107; U.40.70, 81, 87); drāvidī⁴³¹ (Sū.38.54); duduraka⁴³² (Sū.46.274); dūṣaka⁴³³ (Sū.46.4); gajādināmā⁴³⁴ (Ci.18.45); gajāśanā⁴³⁵ (U.40.155); galodya⁴³⁶ (Ci.5.8); gandhāhvā⁴³⁷ (Ci.9.60); gandharvahasta(ka)⁴³⁸ (Ci.4.30; 33.7; 38.67; U.35.3); gangeya⁴³⁹ (U.17.17; 39.109); gargaraka⁴⁴⁰ (Ka.2.5); gāyatrī⁴⁴¹ (U.41.50; 45.34; 52.19); ghontā⁴⁴² (Ci.17.34); gilodya⁴⁴³ (Sū.42.11; Ci.11.10); girihvā⁴⁴⁴ (Ci.18.34; Ka.5.75); girikadambaka⁴⁴⁵ (U.31.4; 32.6); giryāhvā⁴⁴⁶ (Ka.2.45); gocandanā⁴⁴⁷ (Ci.28.22); goiī⁴⁴⁸ (Sū.8.15 and 18; Ci.9.10; 18.5, 32, 33; 19.44; 22.19; Ka.6.3; 7.29; U.24.28); gopā⁴⁴⁹ (Ka.1.37); gopaghontā⁴⁵⁰ (Sū.38.6; Ci.11.10; Ka.6.3); grdhranakhī⁴⁵¹ (Sū.38.73); gudaśarka $r\bar{a}^{452}$ (U.42.70); guptaphal \bar{a}^{453} (U.46.23); harigandh \bar{a}^{454} (U.35.4); harimantha⁴⁵⁵ (Sū.46.277); harivṛkṣa⁴⁵⁶ (Ci.11.10); hastikarṇa⁴⁵⁷ (Sū.39.9; 45.115); hastyāluka⁴⁵⁸ (Sū.46.298); hatha⁴⁵⁹ (Sū.45.11; Ci.11.9; 29.29); hemānga⁴⁶⁰ (Ci.25.39); hima⁴⁶¹ (U. 42.71); hiranyapuspī⁴⁶² (Śā.10.11); hrasvaśigruka⁴⁶³ (U.26.28); hutabhu j⁴⁶⁴ (U.42.29; 52.30); hutāśa(na)⁴⁶⁵ (Ci.37.8; U.41.47; 61.32); ibha⁴⁶⁶ (Ci.38.52); ibhagandhā⁴⁶⁷ (Ka.2.5); ibhakanā⁴⁶⁸ (U.52.42); ibhakrsnā⁴⁶⁹ (U.52.38); indīvara⁴⁷⁰ (Sū.38.12;

46.298; Śā.4.72; Ci.7.11 and 17; U.45.35); indraparņī⁴⁷¹ (Ci.17.15); indrapuspī⁴⁷² (Ci.17.15); indrasurā⁴⁷³ (Ci.37.34; U.11.15); indravallī⁴⁷⁴ (U.28.7); indravrksa⁴⁷⁵ (Sū.11.11; U.57.9; 61.34); jālaksīrī⁴⁷⁶ (Ka.2.5); jalasūka⁴⁷⁷ (Sū.16.19); jālinī⁴⁷⁸ (Ci.2.91; Ka.7.15 and 34); jatā⁴⁷⁹ (Ka.6.15; 7.23; U.60.47; 62.30); jātukanda⁴⁸⁰ (Sū.37.16 and 21); jatumukha⁴⁸¹ (Sū.46.12); jyotiska⁴⁸² (Ci.9.10; 14.10); kaccaka⁴⁸³ (Ci.7.6); kādamba⁴⁸⁴ (Ka.2.5); kadambapuspī⁴⁸⁵ (Ci.19.63; U.44.19); kahlāra⁴⁸⁶ (Sū. 39.8; U.26.13; 47.57); kākādanī⁴⁸⁷ (Sū.39.9; Ci.14.8; 18.13 and 36; 19.63; Ka.7.31; U.28.6; 32.8; 34.7; 44.19; 51.24); kākajanghā⁴⁸⁸ (Ci.19.63); kākalaka⁴⁸⁹ (Sū.46.8); kālāguru⁴⁹⁰ (Ci.39.275); kālaka⁴⁹¹ (Sū.20.5); kālaskandha⁴⁹² (Sū.38.8); kalāyavallī⁴⁹³ (Ci.6.8); kālikā⁴⁹⁴ (U.51.23); kālinda(ka)⁴⁹⁵ (Sū.9.4; 46.211 and 214); kāmbojī⁴⁹⁶ (Ci. 19.42); kāna⁴⁹⁷ ((U.60.47); kanakāhva⁴⁹⁸ (Sū.44.49); kāñcanaka⁴⁹⁹ (Sū.39.7; 46.4); kandalī⁵ (Sū.39.8); kankustha 501 (Sū.28.13); kantakī 502 (Sū.38.6); kāntāra 503 (Sū.45.149 and 153); kapotavankā⁵⁰⁴ (Sū.38.12; Ci.7.6 and 25; 31.5; U.32.3); karaghāta⁵⁰⁵ (Ka.2.5); karambha⁵⁰⁶ (Ka.2.5); karañjikā⁵⁰⁷ (Ci.2.74 and 91; 9.10; Ka.6.3); kāravella(ka)⁵⁰⁸ (Sū.19.33; 42.11; 46.269; Ci.5.12; U.17.51); kāravī⁵⁰⁹ (Sū.46.230); kardamaka⁵¹⁰ (Sū.20.5; 46.4; Ka.2.5); karkotaka⁵¹¹ (Ka.2.5); kārpāsinī⁵¹² (U.47.34); kartarīya⁵¹³ (Ka.2.5): kāsthāluka⁵¹⁴ (Sū.46.298); katukikā⁵¹⁵ (Sū.46.262); katvī⁵¹⁶ (Sū.44.26; Ci.37.37; Ka.7.39); kavaka⁵¹⁷ (Sū.20.8); kedāra⁵¹⁸ (Sū.46.8); kenduka⁵¹⁹ (U.21.15); ketakī⁵²⁰ (Sū.6.32; U.42.45); khadyotaka⁵²¹ (Ka.2.5); kharamañjarī⁵²² (Ci.18.23; 25.14; 31.5; U.12.50; 19.11); kītāri⁵²³ (Ci.2.91); kītaśatru⁵²⁴ (U.12.44); kokilāksaka⁵²⁵ (U.58.44); kolā⁵²⁶ (U.51.33); kośakāra⁵²⁷ (Sū.45.155; U.40.126); kośakrt 528 (Sū.45.150); kośavatī 529 (Ci.18.20; Ka.7.34; U.56.17); krmighātin 530 (U.42.42); krmighna ⁵³¹ (Ci.9.59; U.10.8; 21.52; 26.29; 40.40; 52.29); krmišatru ⁵³² (U.31.36); ksanadā ⁵³³ (U.17.17); ksīradruma ⁵³⁴ (U.18.36); ksīramorata ⁵³⁵ (Sū.42. 11; Ka.8.132); kṣīrapalāndu⁵³⁶ (Sū.46.247); kṣīravṛkṣa⁵³⁷ (Sū.46.163, 165, 253; Śā.10.13; Ci.1.17 and 114; 7.33, 34, 35; 20.16; 24.15; 38.80; U.21.30; 23.6; 29.4); ksīrin⁵³⁸ (Sū.37.23; Śā.10.61; Ci.2.65 and 83; 19.43; 20.34; 22.15 and 17; Ka.5.60; 8.133; U.39.181; 40.104; 47.41); kuberāksī⁵³⁹ (Sū.39.7; U.35.3); kubiaka⁵⁴⁰ (Ci.7.6; U.17.8); kukkutā⁵⁴¹ (U.60.47); kukkutāndaka⁵⁴² (Sū.46.12); kukkutī⁵⁴³ (U.29.7; 33.7); kulāhala⁵⁴⁴ (Sū.38.18; 46.221); kulatthikā⁵⁴⁵ (Ci.16.26; 20.50); kulevara⁵⁴⁶ (Sū.46.290); kulīra⁵⁴⁷ (U.21.45); kumudaghnī⁵⁴⁸ (Ka.2.5); kumudvatī⁵⁴⁹ (Ka.2.5); kunda⁵⁵⁰ (U.7.30; 51.38; 60.35); kuntalikā⁵⁵¹ (Sū.46.274 and 276); kurabaka⁵⁵² (Ka.5.86); kuravaka⁵⁵³ (Sū.46.8); kuruntikā⁵⁵⁴ (Sū.38.12; 46.274 and 276; Ci.7.10); kuruvaka⁵⁵⁵ (Sū.42.11); kuśimbivallī⁵⁵⁶ (Sū.46.46); kuvalaya⁵⁵⁷ (Sū.13.14; 38.52; 46.285); laksmī⁵⁵⁸ (Sū.19.29); lambā⁵⁵⁹ (Ka.2.5); lāngulī⁵⁶⁰ (Sū.19.29); latākastūrikā⁵⁶¹ (Sū.46.204); lāvāksaka⁵⁶² (Sū.46.12); lohitikā⁵⁶³ (Ci.11.10); madhvāluka⁵⁶⁴ (Sū.46.298); magadhā⁵⁶⁵ (U.17.25; 26.7; 40.181; 41.49; 47.30 and 38; 52.34; 56.17); magadhājā (U.17.23); magadhodbhavā (U.11.14; 52.44; 56.18); mahādūsaka⁵⁶⁶ (Sū.46.4); mahākarambha⁵⁶⁷ (Ka.2.5); mahāmāsa ⁵⁶⁸ (Sū.21.23); mahānimba⁵⁶⁹ (Sū.38.22); mahāsastika⁵⁷⁰ (Sū.46.8); mahāsugandhā⁵⁷¹ (U.26.40); mahāśūka⁵⁷² (Sū.46.4); mahāśyāmā⁵⁷³ (Sū.38.29); mahāvisa⁵⁷⁴ (Ka.2.5 and 17); mahīkadamba⁵⁷⁵ (Ci.17.15; U.41.47); mahisaśūka⁵⁷⁶ (Sū.46.4); malavaja⁵⁷⁷ (U.47.55); mallikā⁵⁷⁸ (Sū.46.286); mānaka⁵⁷⁹ (Sū.46.306); mandārī⁵⁸⁰ (Ci.19.63); mandūkī⁵⁸¹ (U.57. 11); mangalya⁵⁸² (Sū.20.5; 46.27); mātulungī⁵⁸³ (Sū.37.3; 39.6; U.45.36; 56.18); mesa⁵⁸⁴ (U.17.45); mesavisānanāman⁵⁸⁵ (U.17.31); misi⁵⁸⁶ (Ci.38.44, 53, 57, 69, 72); mocakī⁵⁸⁷ (Ci.2.64); modayantī⁵⁸⁸ (Ci.25.33); mohanavallikā⁵⁸⁹ (U.60.48); mohanikā⁵⁹⁰ (Ci.28.22); mokṣaka⁵⁹¹ (Ci.4.32; Ka.3.9; U.44.29); mṛgabhojinī⁵⁹² (Ci.17.37); mrgādanī ⁵⁹³ (Ci.2.91; 9.58; Ka.5.69; U.28.7); mrgairvāru⁵⁹⁴ (Sū.39.3; U.30.6); muculunda⁵⁹⁵ (Ci.18.10); mūlaka⁵⁹⁶ (Ka.2.5); muñja⁵⁹⁷ (Śā.5.49); murangī⁵⁹⁸ (Sū.39.6; Ci.23.12; Ka.5.68; U.21.17); murungī⁵⁹⁹ (Ci.6.9; 14.10); mūsikā⁶⁰⁰ (Ka.1.78); nādeyī⁶⁰¹ (Ci.4.32); nadībhallātaka⁶⁰² (Sū.46.249); nāga⁶⁰³ (Sū.45.12; 46.287; Ci.25.38; U.47.61); nāgavinnā⁶⁰⁴ (U.62.31); nagavīttika⁶⁰⁵ (Ci.20.12); nagavrttikā⁶⁰⁶ (Ci.15.9; Ka.5.76); naipāla⁶⁰⁷ (Sū.45.150 and 154); nandana⁶⁰⁸ (Ka.2.5); nandīvrksa⁶⁰⁹ (Sū.38.46 and 48); nārācaka⁶¹⁰ (Ka.2.5); narādhipa⁶¹¹ (Ci.37.11 and 41); nāranga⁶¹² (Sū.46.139 and 161); narendra(druma)⁶¹³ (Ci.9.40; 18.6; Ka.5.61); nīlapora⁶¹⁴ (Sū.45.150 and 154); nīraja⁶¹⁵ (Ci.25.33); nirdahanī⁶¹⁶ (Ci.4.32; U.40. 39; 55.48; 57.10); niśācchada⁶¹⁷ (Ci.38.43 and 67); nīcaihkadamba⁶¹⁸ ((U.51.40); nrpavrksa⁶¹⁹ (U.42.61; 57.9); nrttakaundaka⁶²⁰ (U.51.34); pārāvataka⁶²¹ (Sū.46.12); pāribhadra(ka)⁶²² (Sū.11.11; 29.64; Ci.4.32; Ka.3.9; 6.3; U.32.3; 54.26; 58.48); pārijāta⁶²³ (Ci.11.9; 14.13); pārtha⁶²⁴ (Ka.6.22); patolī⁶²⁵ (U.39.226); pauņ**d**raka⁶²⁶ (Sū.45.149 and 151; Ci.26.17); picu⁶²⁷ (Sū.46.187); picuka⁶²⁸ (Ci.7.17); pippala⁶²⁹ (Ka.8.110 and 120); pītaka⁶³⁰ (Sū.20.5; 46.8); pracībala⁶³¹ (U.34.3); prācībala⁶³² (Sū.38.18); prapundarīka⁶³³ (Ka.2.5); pundarīka⁶³⁴ (Sū.46.4); punnāga⁶³⁵ (Sū.6.23; 38.24 and 45; Ka.2.47; 5.66; 6.16; U.47.61); puskaravarti ⁶³⁶ (Sū.46.163); puspāndaka⁶³⁷ (Sū.46.4); puspaphala⁶³⁸ (Sū.9.4; 46.211; U.47.45); putrañ jīvaka⁶³⁹ (Ci.19.61; U.31.8); putraśrenī⁶⁴⁰ (Sū.38.29; Ka.6.3); rājadruma⁶⁴¹ (Ka.3.9; U.57.8); rājata ru^{642} (U.57.14); $r\bar{a}jik\bar{a}^{643}$ (Sū.46.221); $rakt\bar{a}^{644}$ (Ci.37.31; 38.71; Ka.5.61 and 68; U.52.35); raktāluka⁶⁴⁵ (Sū.46.298); raktasāra⁶⁴⁶ (Ci.9.50); raktasarsapa⁶⁴⁷ (U.3.11); raktavrksa ⁶⁴⁸ (Sū.46.284); raktotpala ⁶⁴⁹ (Sū.38.52); rāmatha ⁶⁵⁰ (U.51.16); rambhā ⁶⁵¹ (Ci.1.108); ramyaka⁶⁵² (Sū.38.29; 39.4; 43.3; Ci.4.27); rātri⁶⁵³ (Ci.9.12; U.10.5); renu⁶⁵⁴ (Ci.37.17 and 40; 38.51 and 57); renuka⁶⁵⁵ (Ka.2.5); renukā⁶⁵⁶ (U.17.16); ruj⁶⁵⁷ (U.40.57; 42.29); rūpikā⁶⁵⁸ (Sū.43.3; Ci.9.5; 17.25; Ka.7.52); rodhrapuspaka⁶⁵⁹ (Sū.46.4); sadābhadrā⁶⁶⁰ (U.24.32); śailabheda⁶⁶¹ (U.10.4); śāka⁶⁶² (Sū.8.15 and 18: 38.43: 42.11: Śā.10.59: Ci.7.6 and 17: 9.10: 15.22: 18.32: Ka.6.3): śākhotaka 663 (Ci.18.23); śakrāhva⁶⁶⁴ (Ci.37.27); śakrayava⁶⁶⁵ (Ci.38.27; U.39.227; 40.66 and 104); śālāmukha⁶⁶⁶ (Sū.46.12); śankhāluka⁶⁶⁷ (Sū.46.298); śāntanu⁶⁶⁸ (Sū.46.21 and 23.) saptāhva⁶⁶⁹ (Sū.6.36; Ci.9.50); sārapāka⁶⁷⁰ (Ka.2.5); śarapunkhā ⁶⁷¹ (Ka.7.53); sarpagandhā⁶⁷² (Ka.5.84; 7.29; U.60.47); sarpaghātin⁶⁷³ (Ka.2.5); sarpāksī⁶⁷⁴ (Ka.6. 22; 8.117); sarsapa⁶⁷⁵ (Ka.2.5); śataparvaka⁶⁷⁶ (U.58.44); saurabhabīja⁶⁷⁷ (U.23.4); saurīvaka⁶⁷⁸ (Ka.2.5); sauvīra⁶⁷⁹ (Sū.46.139 and 146); sephālikā⁶⁸⁰ (Sū.8.15 and 18); siddhaka⁶⁸¹ (Ka.3.9); simha⁶⁸² (Ci.9.27); simhī⁶⁸³ (U.39.219); sinduka⁶⁸⁴ (U.31.7); śīrnavınta⁶⁸⁵ (Sū.46.216 and 220); śītabhīruka⁶⁸⁶ (Sū.46.4); sitakarnika⁶⁸⁷ (U.45.20); śītaphala 688 (Sū.46.163); sitasāriva 689 (U.47.41); sitasindhuvāra 690 (Ka.5.66 and 77); śītaśi va⁶⁹¹ (Sū.14.35; 39.9; 42.11; Ci.11.10; 17.15; Ka.6.18); śivātī⁶⁹² (U.23.4); somā⁶⁹³ (Ka.1.37); somavrksa⁶⁹⁴ (Ci.11.8); śrgālavinnā⁶⁹⁵ (Ci.5.7; U.42.113; 58.59); śrī⁶⁹⁶ (Ci.22.69: U.24.27); śrīniketa⁶⁹⁷ (Ci.9.12); sthūlakanda⁶⁹⁸ (Sū.46.306 and 307); sūcipattra(ka)⁶⁹⁹ (Sū.45.149 and 154); sugandha⁷⁰⁰ (Ka.2.5); sugandhaka⁷⁰¹ $(S\bar{u}.20.5; 38.18; 46.4 \text{ and } 221); sugandhā^{702}(Ka.5.76); sugandhikā^{703}(Ci.17.8 \text{ and } 28:$

Ka.5.69; 6.15); śukāhvayā⁷⁰⁴ (Ci.18.48); śukākhya⁷⁰⁵ (Ci.18.36; 19.65); śukākhyā⁷⁰⁶ (Ci.2.90; Ka.7.34; U.44.19; 51.23); śukanasā⁷⁰⁷ (Ci.17.37; 19.63); śukanāsā⁷⁰⁸ (Sū.42.11; Ci.1.115); śuklamarica⁷⁰⁹ (U.11.13 and 16; 12.51); surā⁷¹⁰ (U.62.30); suradruma⁷¹¹ (Ci.37.16; U.61.31); surakāstha⁷¹² (U.11.6); sūrana⁷¹³ (Sū.46.306 and 307); surasī⁷¹⁴ (Sū.38.18; Ka.5.70); surendrakanda⁷¹⁵ (Sū.46.305); sūryavallī⁷¹⁶ (Sū.45.120; Ci.31.5; Ka.2.45); śvetacandana 717 (Ci.25.39); śvetadūr vā 718 (Śā.10.69); śvetakarkataka ⁷¹⁹ (U.58.42); śvetamoksaka ⁷²⁰ (Ci.4.32); śvetapora(ka) ⁷²¹ (Sū.45.149 and 152); śvetapunamavā⁷²² (Ka.7.24 and 52); śvetasarsapa⁷²³ (Ci.5.10; 22.20); śvetasurasā⁷²⁴ (Sū.38.18); śvetāvalguja⁷²⁵ (Ci.28.3); talakota⁷²⁶ (U.51.45); tālapattrī⁷²⁷ (Sū.11.3; 37.30; Ci.18.5; 25.18); tālītala⁷²⁸ (Ci.17.25); tāmravallī⁷²⁹ (Śā.10.59); tāpasavrksa⁷³⁰ (Sū.38.16; Ci.18.13); tāpaseksu⁷³¹ (Sū.45.149 and 153); taskara⁷³² (Ci.37.17); tīkṣṇagandhā ⁷³³ (U.23.4); tiktālābu ⁷³⁴ (Sū.46.215); timira ⁷³⁵ (U.51.32); toya⁷³⁶ (Ka.2.51; 6.16; 8.114); tripuṭaka⁷³⁷ (Sū.46.27); trivarga⁷³⁸ (Ci.2.73; 24.7; U.41.45); trivarnaka⁷³⁹ (Sū.44.7); tundikera⁷⁴⁰ (U.48.27); tundikerī⁷⁴¹ (Ni.2.10; 16. 42); turangagandhā⁷⁴² (U.41.41 and 43); tuvara(ka)⁷⁴³ (Sū.45.122; 46.196 and 423; Ci.9.7; 13.20; 31.5; U.16.8); tvaksāra 744 (Sū.8.15); tvaritaka 745 (Sū.46.12); udumbarī bhadrāsamjāā⁷⁴⁶ (Ci.9.15); ugrā⁷⁴⁷ (Ci.25.38; 38.45; U.23.4; 41.50; 51.27; 61.36); undurukarnikā⁷⁴⁸ (Sū.38.18); unmatta(ka)⁷⁴⁹ (Ka.7.54; U.21.6); utpalasārivā⁷⁵⁰ (Śā.10.60); uttamāraņī⁷⁵¹ (Ci.6.12; 10.8); vahni⁷⁵² (Ci.9.47; U.52.35); vaijavantī⁷⁵³ (Sū.42.11; Ci.4.32; 11.9; 19.39); vairātaka⁷⁵⁴ (Ka.2.5 and 14); vāiigandhā⁷⁵⁵ (Ci.37.12 and 20; 38.43; U.41.42; 62.27); vajraproktā⁷⁵⁶ (U.60.48); vajrākhya⁷⁵⁷ (Ci.9.55); vajravrksa⁷⁵⁸ (Sū.38.20); vakra⁷⁵⁹ (Ka.5.63; 6.3; 7.29; 8.47, 48, 54, 104, 117; U. 9.13; 18.94 and 98); vanamudga⁷⁶⁰ (Sū.20.5; 46.27 and 29); vandāka⁷⁶¹ (Ci.6.13); vanyakulattha ⁷⁶² (Sū.46.38); varadāru ⁷⁶³ (Ka.2.5); varāhakanda ⁷⁶⁴ (Sū.46.309); vārāhī⁷⁶⁵ (Ci.7.10; 17.4 and 36; 27.11; 30.5 and 13); varavāstuka⁷⁶⁶ (U.17.50); vārida⁷⁶⁷ (Ci.38.71); varnaka⁷⁶⁸ (U.10.10; 35.7); vātaghna⁷⁶⁹ (Ci.16.4); veganāman⁷⁷⁰ (Sū.46.238); venukā⁷⁷¹ (Ka.2.5); venupattrikā⁷⁷² (Ka.1.53); vidyucchikā⁷⁷³ (Ka.2.5); vijaya⁷⁷⁴ (Ka.2.5); vinirdahanī⁷⁷⁵ (U.44.28); vīrataru⁷⁷⁶ (Sū.38.12; 39.7; Šā.10.22; Ci.7.26; 15.44; U.9.20; 40.41); visaghnī⁷⁷⁷ (U.62.30); viśalyā⁷⁷⁸ (Śā.10.11; Ci.18.48; Ka.5.61; U.55.49; 62.30); visamustika⁷⁷⁹ (Sū.38.18); visapattrikā⁷⁸⁰ (Ka.2.5); vrddhi ⁷⁸¹ (Sū.38.35; Ci.37.12; 38.28); vyādhighāta ⁷⁸² (Ci.9.14); yavaphala ⁷⁸³ (U.31.6); yavaphalā⁷⁸⁴ (Ka.6.15); yojanavallī⁷⁸⁵ (U.38.45).

The inorganic substances of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*⁷⁸⁶ are collectively referred to as pārthiva substances; ⁷⁸⁷ the items listed as such consist of gold (suvarṇa), silver (rajata), gems (maṇi), pearls (muktā), manaḥśilā, clay (mrd), potsherds (kapāla), etc. ⁷⁸⁸

Apart from salts, ⁷⁸⁹ caustics (kṣāra) ⁷⁹⁰ and some types of añjana, ⁷⁹¹ the *Suśruta-samhitā* mentions: ⁷⁹² āgāradhūma ⁷⁹³ (Sū.14.35; Ci.9.10); āla ⁷⁹⁴ (Ci.1.107 and 108; 9. 27 and 55; 19.18; 20.21; 25.38; U.11.9; 52.22); ananta ⁷⁹⁵ (Śā.10.13); aśmajajatu ⁷⁹⁶ (U.41.57); aśmajātajatu ⁷⁹⁷ (U.46.24); aśmantaka ⁷⁹⁸ (U.15.26); aśmasāra ⁷⁹⁹ (U.59.24); audumbara ⁸⁰⁰ (U.18.63 and 85); ayas (iron) and ayorajas (powdered iron) (Sū.9.19; 11. 11; 16.18; Ci.10.11 and 12; 13.7; 19.47; 25.28; 35.12; 44.17 and 21; U.15.26; 17.85; 18.62; 44.17); ayaskānta ⁸⁰¹ (Sū.7.15; 27.1); ayomala ⁸⁰² (U.44.24 and 32); bhasmaśarkarā ⁸⁰³ (Sū.11.11); dhātumāksīka ⁸⁴⁴ (Ci.9.6); gairika ⁸⁰⁵ (Sū.14.36; Ci.19.30 and 40;

Ka.6.16; U.9.15; 10.8; 17.6, 87; 45.39); giri ja⁸⁰⁶ (Ci.13.12); gomedaka⁸⁰⁷ (Ni.3.7); grhadhūma⁸⁰⁸ (Ci.9.60; 18.41); haritāla⁸⁰⁹ (Sū.37.14 and 18; Ci.1.60, 97, 105; 6.12; 9. 10; 19.40 and 46; U.30.7); heman (gold) (Śā.10.13 and 68); istakā⁸¹⁰ (Ci.32.5); kāca (glass) (Sū.8.15; 46.453); kajjala (U.12.53); kāmsya (Sū.46.328; Ci.18.36; 32.4; U.18. 61 and 103); kāmsyamala (U.12.14, 41, 50); kanaka (gold) (Sū.26.20; Śā.10.68); kanakagairika⁸¹¹ (Ka.2.51); kanakākārodbhava⁸¹² (U.17.39); kāncana (gold) (Śā.10.68); kāñcanagairika 813 (Ka.5.67; U.44.21); kāñcanāhvagairika 814 (U.50.19); kapāla 815 (Sū. 16.15; Ci.32.4 and 5; U.18.96); kardama 816 (Ci.25.32); kāsīsa 817 (Sū.37.14, 19, 31; 38. 37; Ci.1.60, 96, 97, 103; 9.10 and 55; 18.54; 19.40; U.12.18 and 24; 14.4; 17.44; 18. 25; 25.32; 50.27); kataśarkarā⁸¹⁸ (Sū. 11.12); kṛṣṇakapālikā⁸¹⁹ (Ni.5.8); kṛṣṇaloha⁸²⁰ (Sū.38.62; U.18.24); krsnāyas 821 (Sū.46.499; Ci.12.10 and 11; 25.31); kuruvinda 822 (Sū. 8.15; 37.31; Ka.3.14; U.15.26); loha⁸²³ (Sū.7.7; 9.8; 12.4; 18.16; 46.328; Ci.1.90; 6.11; 9.25; 13.5, 6, 7; 32.5; 35.12); lohacūrņa 824 (Ci.9.25; U.12.24); lohakiṭṭa 825 (U.44. 32 and 34); lohamala⁸²⁶ (Sū.38.62); lohapurīsa⁸²⁷ (Ci.18.52); loharajas⁸²⁸ (Sū.15.32; Ci.25.33); māksika⁸²⁹ (Ci.13.17 and 18); manahśilā⁸³⁰ (Sū.1.32; 37.14, 18, 31; Ci.1. 60 and 97; 9.10 and 55; 19.40 and 46; U.11.8 and 9; 18.100; 17.7, 18, 27, 39, 98; 30. 7; 18.100; 52.22); mandūra 831 (U.44.23); mani 832 (Sū.1.32; 45.17; 46.330; Ci.1.100; 35.12; 39.235); manohvā⁸³³ (U.13.7); mrd (U.44.3; 45.33; Ka.3.12); muktā (Sū.1.32; $45.17;\,46.329;\,U.15.26;\,44.21);\,nad\overline{\imath}ja^{834}\,(Ci.9.25);\,nad\overline{\imath}jadh\bar{a}tu^{835}\,(U.44.31);\,naip\bar{a}-1.01;\,$ la⁸³⁶ (U.50.18); naipālī⁸³⁷ (U.12.16); nepālajā⁸³⁸ (U.19.14); nepālajātā⁸³⁹ (U.11.16); nepālī⁸⁴⁰ (U.12.16; 14.4); pāṣāṇa⁸⁴¹ (Ci.32.5); pārada (Ci.25.39; ⁸⁴² U.35.7); ⁸⁴³ pravāla (coral)⁸⁴⁴ (U.44.21); pulaka⁸⁴⁵ (U.15.26); puspa⁸⁴⁶ (Ka.6.17); rajata (silver)⁸⁴⁷ (Sū. 1.32; 26.20; 38.62; 46.449 and 451; Ci.35.12; U.10.15; 18.85); ratna⁸⁴⁸ (U.12.25; 18. 94); rīti (yellow brass) (Sū.26.20; Ci.35.12); rūpya 849 (Sū.46.327); śaila ja jatu 850 (U.44. 31); śātakumbha⁸⁵¹ (U.10.9 and 15; 17.85; 18.85 and 92); śilā⁸⁵² (Ci.2.60; 25.38; Ka. 6.17; U.12.29; 14.7; 21.48); śilājatu⁸⁵³ (Sū.38.37; Ci.9.6; 13.4-10ab; U.44.31); sīsa-(ka) (lead) (Sū.26.20; 38.62; 46.329; Ci.13.7; 18.38); sphatika (rock crystal) (Sū.8.15; 46.329 and 453; U.10.15; 12.17; 15.26; 18.92); srotoja (U.17.98); sudhāśarkarā 854 (Sū. 11.11); surāstrajā⁸⁵⁵ (Sū.37.14; Ci.1.60; 19.24); sutāra⁸⁵⁶ (Ka.3.14); suvarna (gold)⁸⁵⁷ (Sū.1.32; 38.62; 46.326 and 450; Śā.10.68; Ci.35.12); svarnagairika (U.17.12):858 tāmra (copper) (Sū.26.20; 38.62; 46.327 and 452; Ci.9.23; 12.10; 18.38; 35.12; U.11.6; 12.29 and 40; 15.26; 17.85 and 97; 18.24); tāmracūrna (Ci.19.47; U.18.100); tankana (borax) (Sū.46.322 and 325; U.18.24); tāpīja⁸⁵⁹ (Ci.13.17); tāpya⁸⁶⁰ (U.44.23); tāra (silver)⁸⁶¹ (Ka.3.14); tīkṣṇaloha⁸⁶² (Ci.10.11; 12.15); trapu (tin) (Sū.26.20; 38.62; 46.329; Ci.13.5 and 7; 18.38; U.12.14; 54.33); tuttha (Ci.1.97; 2.69 and 73; 7.102; 9. 10 and 27: 18.54; U.11.6 and 12: 12.16; 18.95); tutthaka (Sū.38.37; Ci.9.61); vaidūrva (Sū.46.329 and 453; U.10.15; 15.26; 18.92); va jrendra (Sū.46.329); vidruma (coral) 863 (Sū.46.329; U.10.15; 12.17; 17.98; 18.24).

Chapter 8

Authorities associated with the Suśrutasamhitā

Dhanvantari

Dhanvantari, I incarnated as Divodāsa, king of Kāśī, is the teacher of Suśruta and a number of other disciples in the Suśrutasaṃhitā.

In contrast with Divodāsa, Dhanvantari is not mentioned in Vedic literature, ² apart from its latest layer, the Sūtra texts.

The later Indian tradition is acquainted with him as the god of healing, closely associated with the science of medicine. ³

The earliest reference to Dhanvantari appears to be found in the Kauśikasūtra (74.6), which prescribes that a portion of the daily offering (baliharaṇa) be reserved for him. Offerings to Dhanvantari which form part of various rituals (baliharaṇa, caityayajña, pākayajña) are mentioned in gṛḥyasūtras, dharmaśāstra texts, the Mahābhārata, and some Purānas.

Dhanvantari made his first appearance as one of the jewels that arose from the Ocean of Milk, ¹⁰ after it had been churned for a long time by the Devas and Asuras in order to obtain the drink of immortality called amrta. ¹¹

Shortly after this event, he asked Visru for his share in the sacrifice and a place on earth; the shares having already been apportioned, the second request could be granted only; he would enjoy the dignity of a god and be worshipped by the twice-born with oblations of boiled rice and barley (caru), mantras, vratas, and muttered prayers (japa). ¹²

The second incarnation of Dhanvantari took place in the Dvāparayuga, when he was born as the son or grandson of Dīrghatamas or -tapas, king of Kāśī. ¹³

The Suśrutasanhitā refers to Dhanvantari, who was born again as Divodāsa, King of Kāśī, ¹⁴ as Ādideva (Sū.1.21) and amaravara (Sū.1.3); he is regarded as identical with the Dhanvantari who arose from the churning of the Milky Ocean (Ni.1.3; U.39.3). ¹⁵

The Brahmavaivartapurāṇa is acquainted with a Dhanvantari who was a pupil of Bhāskara, and who composed a medical work called *Cikitsātattvajñāna*. ¹⁶ The same Purāṇa also tells a story about a Dhanvantari who was a toxicological expert, in particular skilled in counteracting the effects of snake venom. ¹⁷

The Bhaviṣyapurāṇa tells about a Dhanvantari who was an incarnation of Sūrya; this Dhanvantari, born in Kāśī as the son of the brāhmaṇa Kalpadatta, became a follower of Kṛṣṇacaitanya and wrote a treatise called Kalpaveda. He chose Suśruta, the son of a king, as one of his pupils; Suśruta composed, on the model of the Kalpaveda, his own medical work, a book in one hundred chapters, with the title Sauśrutatantra. ¹⁸

A narrative about a Dhanvantari, born as the son of a vaiśya girl called Vīrabhadrā after her encounter with the sage Gālava, is found in the Garuḍa-, Mārkaṇḍeya- and Skandapurāna. 19 and in a work called Ambasthācāracandrikā. 20

The Indian tradition is also familiar with a Dhanvantari who was one of the nine gems at the court of Vikramāditya. ²¹ This Dhanvantari is often thought to be the author of the Dhanvantarīyanighantu.

Finally, some Indian authors refer to a Dhanvantari who established a gotra of the Sārasvatabrāhmanas. $^{22}\,$

Dhanvantari's name also appears in some of the lists of the Tamil Siddhas. ²³ The guru of Konkanavar, one of these Siddhas, was the pupil of a Dhanvantari. The introductory verses of some Tamil medical treatises, for example Tēraiyār's *Makākariśal*, ²⁴ pay homage to Dhanvantari. A Tamil medical work, called *Tanvantarivaityam*, ²⁵ which contains many rasayogas, is also known. ²⁶

Iconographic descriptions of the deity Dhanvantari are found in the Samarānganasūtradhāra (77.47), Śilparatna, and Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa. ²⁷ Sculptures representing Dhanvantari and shrines dedicated to him are rare. ²⁸

Dhanvantari's name is not absent from Indian folk traditions. He is mentioned in a tale on the origin of the Camār caste and in the Pañjābī legend about a princess called Niwal Daī ²⁹

A number of Indian scholars have tried to determine the number of different Dhanvantaris referred to in the texts. For obvious reasons, they have not succeeded in reaching a consensus; the number of Dhanvantaris distinguished varies from one to five. ³⁰

The divine Dhanvantari is, in general, associated with Viṣṇu. He is considered to be a part (aṃśa) of Viṣṇu, this god's twelfth avatāra, ³¹ or a part of Nārāyaṇa. ³² He is, however, also reckoned as a disciple of Śiva. ³³ Dhanvantari is one of the 1,008 names of Śiva in the *Mahābhārata*. ³⁴ The same epic lists Dhanvantari as one of the 108 names of Sūrya, the sun god. ³⁵

Dhanvantari is also known to the Buddhist³⁶ and Jaina traditions. He is a medical expert in the *Milindapañha*;³⁷ the *Ayoghara-Jātaka* (Nr. 510) refers to him, together with Vaitaraṇa and Bhoja, as a specialist in the treatment of snake-bites.³⁸ He is also mentioned in Āryaśūra's *Jātakamālā*, ³⁹

The Vivāgasuya (= Sanskrit Vipākaśruta), the eleventh anga of the Śvetāmbara Jaina canon, mentions a Dhanvantari as the court physician of Kanakaratha, king of Vijayapura. An Āyurvedaśāstra of Dhanvantari is mentioned in Śīlānka's Caŭpanamahāpurisacariya. Some more Dhanvantaris are referred to in other Jaina texts.

The popularity of Dhanvantari is attested by sayings found in the $\it Hitopade \acute{s}a$ and other works. 42

Bhagvat Sinh Jee asserted that the term Dhanvantari is applied to a physician who is acquainted with no less than three hundred remedies for each and every affection. 43

The divine Dhanvantari and his later namesakes are connected with the science of medicine. The Dhanvantari who arose during the churning of the Milky Ocean bore a pitcher (kamandalu, kalaśa), full of the drink of immortality (amṛta), in one of his hands, and is described as a medical expert. 44 The descendant of Dīrghatapas

is referred to as the founder of \bar{a} yurveda. ⁴⁵ The Dhanvantari who was the son of $V\bar{a}$ rabhadr \bar{a} bore the title of $V\bar{a}$ idya. ⁴⁶

In his second existence, as the descendant of Dīrghatapas, Dhanvantari received his āyurvedic knowledge from Bharadvā ja; he divided the āyurveda into eight branches and taught it to his pupils. ⁴⁷ The teacher is replaced by Bhāskara in the Brahmavaivartapurāṇa⁴⁸ and Matsyapurāṇa. ⁴⁹ The Brahmavaivartapurāṇa mentions Garuḍa as the one who instructed Dhanvantari in mantraṣāstra. ⁵⁰

The Suśrutasaṃhitā (Sū.1.20), Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha (Sū.1.6-10) and Bhāvaprakāśa (I.1.71-72) relate that Dhanvantari received the āyurveda from Indra.

Dhanvantari is a medical expert in general or a specialist in toxicology in the non-medical sources. The medical treatises regard him as an authority without special qualifications or as a specialist in surgery (śalya).

The Suśrutasaṃhitā presents him in his incarnation as Divodāsa as a surgeon. 51 Dalhaṇa gives, as an etymology of Dhanvantari's name: dhanuli śalyaśāstraṃ, tasya antaṃ pāram iyarti gacchatīti dhanvantariḥ, 52 which means that he completely mastered the science of surgery (dhanus = śalyaśāstra). Cakrapāṇidatta's Bhānumatī⁵³ quotes the same etymological explanation, preceded by another one: jagadarthasādhanād dhanur dharmaḥ, tasyānto vyādhyakālamṛtyusaṃpādako 'dharmaḥ, tasyārir, which means that he was the enemy of adharma, which leads to an untimely death due to disease. 54

The dhānvantarīyāḥ, i.e., those following Dhanvantari's teachings, are obviously surgeons.

Dhanvantari, in his role as Suśruta's teacher, was also an expert in aśvaśāstra 55 and rites heneficial to cattle. 56

The Suśrutasaṃhitā refers frequently to Dhanvantari, to whom many laudatory epithets are given: ahataśāsana (Ka.1.3), bhiṣajārṇ varaḥ (Ni.1.5), dharmabhṛtārṇ variṣṭhaḥ (Ni.1.3; Ci.2.3), mahāprajña (Ka.4.3), nimittāntarabhūmipa (Ni.9.3), sarvaśāstrarthatattvajña (U.18.3), sarvaśāstraviśārada (Ka.4.3), śrīmant (Ni.9.3), tapodharmabhṛtāṇ varaḥ (Ka.1.3), tapodṛṣṭi (U.18.3), vāgviśārada (Ci.2.3), udāradhī (U.18.3).

Works ascribed to one or more authors called Dhanvantari are: (1) Auṣadha-prayoga(kārikā); ⁵⁷ (2) Āyurvedasārāvalī; ⁵⁸ (3) Bālacikitsā; ⁵⁹ (4) Cārucaryā; ⁶⁰ (5) Cikitsādī pikā; ⁶¹ (6) Cikitsāsara(saṃgraha); ⁶² (7) Cikitsātattvajñāna; ⁶³ (8) Dhanvantarisaṃhitā; ⁶⁴ (9) Dhātukalpa; ⁶⁵ (10) Dinacaryā; ⁶⁶ (11) Gudūcyādi; ⁶⁷ (12) Guṭikādhikāra; ⁶⁸ (13) Kālajñāna; ⁶⁹ (14) Māsavarṣacikitsā; ⁷⁰ (14) Nāmamālā or Śabdasaṃketakalikā; ⁷¹ (15) Nibandhasaṃgraha; ⁷² (16) Saṃnipātakalikā; ⁷³ (17) Vaidyabhāskarodaya; ⁷⁴ (18) Vaidyasāra; ⁷⁵ (19) Vaidyavidyāvinoda; ⁷⁶ (20) Vidyāprakāśacikitsā; ⁷⁷ (21) Yogacintāmaṇi; ⁷⁸ (22) Yogadīpikā. ⁷⁹ A Roganidāna and Vaidyacintāmaṇi are sometimes added to this list. ⁸⁰

Several works associated with the name of Dhanvantari are known. 81

A Dhanvantarisanıhitā is one of the sources of the Amṛtasāgara. 82 The Āyurvedavijñāna mentions a Śākteyagrantha by Dhanvantari. 83

The Dhanvantariyanighantu is said to have emanated from the mouth of Dhanvantari

Authors and works quoting Dhanvantari or referring to him are: 84 Agnipurāṇa, 85 Ātreyasaṇhitā, 86 Basava's Śivatattvaratnākara, 87 Bhāvaprakāśa, 88 Bower MS, 89 Cakrapāṇidatta, 90 Candranandana, 91 Candraṭa, 92 Carakasaṇhitā, 93 Dalhaṇa, 94 Garuapurāṇa, 95 Indu, 96 the Kairalī commentary on the Aṣṭāṇgaḥrdayasaṇhitā, 97 Kāśyapasaṇhitā, 98 Kṣīrasvāmin's commentary on the Amarakośa, 99 Nādījījānaprakāśikā,
Narahari's Vāgbhaṭamaṇdana, 100 Nārāyaṇa's commentary on the Amarakośa, 101
Rasakakṣāpuṭa, Sahasrayoga, 102 Śivadāsasena, 103 Śivadattamiśra's auto-commentary
on the Śivakoṣa, 104 Sodhala, 105 Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, 106 Ṭoḍara, 107 and Vāgbhaṭa. 108

A MS of a Dhanvantarimantra is described by P.K. Gode. 109

Dhanvantari is known as Than-la-bar in the Tibetan medical tradition. 110

Authors and works quoting from or referring to the dhānvantarīyāḥ, i.e., the representatives of a surgical school connected with the teachings of Dhanvantari, are: Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha, ¹¹¹ Ātreyasaṃhitā, ¹¹² Cakrapāṇidatta, ¹¹³ Candraṭa, ¹¹⁴ Carakasaṃhitā, ¹¹⁵ Gayadāsa, ¹¹⁶ Hemādri, ¹¹⁷ Jejjaṭa, ¹¹⁸ Parameśvara, ¹¹⁹ Śivadattamiśra, ¹²⁰ Śrīdāsapandita, ¹²¹ and Tīsata. ¹²² The dhānvantarāḥ are cited by Arunadatta. ¹²³

An unidentified work called *Dhanvantari* is quoted by Arunadatta. 124

Formulae attributed to Dhanvantari or associated with his name are: aśvagandhādyataila, ¹²⁵ bṛhacchṛṅgārābhra, ¹²⁶ bṛhannārikelakhaṇḍa, ¹²⁷ dhānvantaraghṛta, ¹²⁸ dhānvantarasarpis, ¹²⁹ dinajvarapraśamanī vaṭī, ¹³⁰ dvātriṃśakaguggulu, ¹³¹ gaṅgādharayoga, ¹³² kāmadevacūṛṇa, ¹³³ kāmadevaguṭikā, ¹³⁴ madhupakvaharītakī, ¹³⁵ mahāmṛtyu-ñjayalauha, ¹³⁶ mahodadhirasa, ¹³⁷ a mātrābasti to be used against bālapakṣāghāta, ¹³⁸ mṛtyuñjayalauha, ¹³⁹ mṛtyuñjayalaoha, ¹⁴⁰ pāśupatarasa, ¹⁴¹ pāśupatāstrarasa, ¹⁴² rājavallabharasa, ¹³⁷ rāmabāṇarasa, ¹⁴⁴ rasābhraguggulu, ¹⁴⁵ rasarājendra, ¹⁴⁶ rasāyanavaṭī, ¹⁴⁷ rasendraguṭikā, ¹⁴⁸ rasendravaṭikā, ¹⁴⁹ rogavidāraṇarasa, ¹⁵⁰ romavedharasa, ¹⁵¹ saptatriṃśatikaguggulu, ¹⁵² saptaviṃśatikaguggulu, ¹⁵³ sindūrarasa, ¹⁵⁴ svarṇakṣīrīrasa, ¹⁵⁵ tālabhasmaprayoga, ¹⁵⁶ tālasindūra, ¹⁵⁷ vāriśoṣaṇarasa, ¹⁵⁸ viṣamajvarāntakalauha, ¹⁵⁹ and visamajvarāntakaloha. ¹⁶⁰

Divodāsa

Divodāsa, 161 king of Kāśī and an incarnation of Dhanvantari, $^{\tilde{1}62}$ is the teacher of Suśruta and other disciples in the Suśrutasaṇhitā. 163

Divodāsa is the name of several persons mentioned in Vedic and post-Vedic literature. It is not evident at first sight why a Divodāsa should be presented as an expert in the medical science, in particular as a surgical specialist; his association with medicine may have been facilitated by Divodāsa's relationship with Bharadvāja in Vedic literature ¹⁶⁴ and by his descent from a Dhanvantari in the *Mahābhārata* and a number of Purāṇas.

A Divodāsa appears eighteen times in the Rgveda. ¹⁶⁵ Atithigva, a name occurring thirteen times in the Rgveda, ¹⁶⁶ is by most scholars regarded as an epithet of Divodāsa, at least in the majority of the verses where the word is found. ¹⁶⁷ Divodāsa is a king, often associated with other kings; Bharadvāja, repeatedly mentioned together with Divodāsa, ¹⁶⁸ may have been his purohita. ¹⁶⁹

Other Vedic texts in which a Divodāsa or one of his descendants appears are: the

Kāṭhakasaṃhitā (7.8), ¹⁷⁰ Kauṣītakībrāhmaṇa (26.5), ¹⁷¹ Kauṣītakībrāhmaṇopaniṣad (3.1), ¹⁷² Āśvalāyanaśrautasūtra, ¹⁷³ Baudhāyanaśrautasūtra, ¹⁷⁴ and Kātyāyana's Sa rvānukramanī of the Rgveda. ¹⁷⁵ ¹⁷⁶

The Mahābhārata tells several stories about a Divodāsa who was the father of Pratardana: (1) Divodāsa, son of Sudeva and father of Pratardana, was installed as the king of Kāsī, and built, at the instance of Indra, a city called Vārāṇasī; he lost a battle with the Haihayas and sought refuge in the hermitage of Bharadvāja; his son, Pratardana, inflicted a defeat on the Haihayas; ¹⁷⁷ (2) Divodāsa, great-grandson of Dhanvantari, son of Bhīmaratha and father of Pratardana, established his capital at Vārāṇasī; ¹⁷⁸ (3) Divodāsa Bhaimaseni, king of Kāsī, was the father of Pratardana. ¹⁷⁹

Divodāsa is known to a number of Purānas, ¹⁸⁰ where he is the grandson or greatgrandson of Dhanvantari, the son of Ketumant or Bhīmaratha, and the father of Pratardana. ¹⁸¹

Another Divodāsa, son of Badhyaśva, Bahvaśva(n), Bṛhadaśva, Cañcāśva, Pañcāśva, or Vindhyāśva, is referred to in the Agnipurāṇa, 182 Matsyapurāṇa, 183 Vāyupurāṇa, 184 and Visnupurāṇa; 185 this Divodāsa was a Pāñcāla 186.

Several scholars attempted to establish connections between the various Divodāsas mentioned in Vedic and post-Vedic texts without reaching an agreement. ¹⁸⁷ Others are convinced that the Divodāsa who descended from Dhanvantari is not related to the Vedic Divodāsa. ¹⁸⁸

The Divodāsas discussed so far are nowhere associated with the science of medicine, but it should be remembered that the Vedic Divodāsa was Bharadvāja's patron. It may not be accidental that the medical tradition presents Divodāsa as the teacher of Suśruta, and Bharadvāja as the one who passed the āyurveda on to Ātreya. Both Divodāsa and Bharadvāja received the science from Indra.

The identity of the Divodāsa, king of Kāsī and regarded as an incarnation of Dhanvantari, is a problem, since none of his namesakes appearing in non-medical texts is described as a surgical specialist or a physician in general. Dalhana does not identify him in his commentary (ad Su.Sū.1.3) and restricts himself to the remark that he is a royal sage (rājarṣi), ¹⁸⁹ who has given up his rule over the country (janapada) of Vārāṇasī ¹⁹⁰ and has withdrawn to a hermitage (āśrama). Almost the same comments are found in Cakrapāṇi's Bhānumatī. Both commentators add some etymological explanations of the name Divodāsa. ¹⁹¹

A large part of the secondary literature does not focus on the identity of Divodāsa, but on that of the Dhanvantari with whom he is identical. 192

Divodāsa's name is not often met with in the Suśrutasamhitā. All the chapters begin with the statement that a particular subject will be discussed according to the words spoken by Dhanvantari. The last chapter of the Uttaratantra, however, though beginning in the same way, presents Suśruta as putting a question to Divodāsa, who is adorned with a number of laudatory epithets: aṣṭāṅgavedavidvas, mahaujas, chinna-śāstrārthasaṃdeha, and sūkṣmāgādhāgamodadhi (U.66:3-4ab). Some more epithets are: mahātapas (U.66.5cd), nṛpaśārdūla (U.66.6ab), and saṃśayacchid (U.66.5cd).

Dhanvantari, Divodāsa and Kāśirāja, three names for one and the same person in the Suśrutasamhitā, are regarded as three different pupils of Bhāskara in the

Brahmavaivartapurāṇa, where each of them is reported to have composed a medical treatise; the titles of these works are Cikitsātattva vijñāna, Cikitsādarpaṇa and Cikitsākaumudīrespectively. 194 A similar view is expressed in a verse from an unknown source, which enumerates six healers (vyādhighātaka): Dhanvantari, Divodāsa, Kāśirāja, the Aśvins, Nakula and Sahadeva. 195

Divodāsa is mentioned as a medical authority in Dhanvantari's Samnipātakalikā.

A work on dharmaśāstra, called *Divodāsaprakāśa*, was written by a later namesake. 196

Kasirā ja

Kāšīrāja ¹⁹⁷ is the title of Divodāsa, ¹⁹⁸ an incarnation of Dhanvantari, in the *Suśruta-samhitā*. ¹⁹⁹

The quotations from and references to him are not always clear. Some sources regard him as an authority different from Divodāsa and Dhanvantari.

The Brahmavaivartapurāṇa mentions Dhanvantari, Divodāsa and Kāśīrāja among the sixteen pupils of Bhāskara and ascribes a *Cikitsākaumudī* to Kāśīrāja.²⁰⁰

An anonymous work associated with his name is the Kāśīrā jasamhitā. 201

Authors and works quoting Kāšīrāja or referring to him are: the Bower MS, ²⁰² Dhanvantari's Cikitsākalikā, Govindasena's Paribhāṣāpradīpa, ²⁰³ Ravigupta's Siddhasāra, ²⁰⁴ and Somadeva's Yaśastilaka. ²⁰⁵

Formulae attributed to Kāśīrāja are: amṛtaprāśaghṛta, ²⁰⁶ bṛhatpūrṇacandrarasa, ²⁰⁷ garbhavilāsataila, ²⁰⁸ pittāntakarasa, ²⁰⁹ uśīrādyataila, ²¹⁰ and uśīrāsava. ²¹ I

Apart from Kāśirāja, two otherroyal sages, Vāmaka and Vāryovida, mentioned in āyurvedic texts, are connected with the city of Kāśī. ²¹²

Nāgārjuna

Nāgārjuna is the most famous representative of the Mādhyamika school of Mahāyāna Buddhism. Many philosophical works are associated with his name. ²¹³

The connection between the philosopher and the large number of treatises on diverse subjects, said to be by someone called Nāgārjuna, is a vexed question, still unsolved, in spite of the efforts of a long series of authors.

One group of these scholars is convinced, or inclined to assume, that the philosopher Nāgārjuna was also interested in Tantrism, magic, medicine, alchemy, etc. ²¹⁴ Others are more cautious, wanting not to exclude the possibility of such a broad range of interests. ²¹⁵ The majority of those who expressed their opinion on the subject distinguish a number of authors called Nāgārjuna, in order to explain the diversity of the treatises. ²¹⁶

A Tantric author, engaged in alchemy and magic, is very often thought to be distinct from the philosopher. ²¹⁷ A third Nāgārjuna is supposed to be the alchemist of this name referred to by al-Bīrūnī. ²¹⁸

In my opinion it does not have much sense to engage in discussions on the number of different Nāgārjunas to be distinguished. The large number of very diverse works

ascribed to Nāgārjuna and the material relating to his life are in favour of the hypothesis that Nāgārjuna developed into a legendary figure, who was not only a philosopher, but also an alchemist and a colourful wizard, to whom all kinds of writings could be attributed by Buddhists, Hindus and Jains. ²¹⁹

The non-philosophical treatises fathered upon Nāgārjuna may conveniently be divided into four groups, concerned with medicine, alchemy, magic, and erotics.

References to Nāgārjuna as a physician of an āyurvedic type are far from rare. Nāgārjuna's Jīvasūtra is a work inspired by the āyurvedic tradition. The Yogaśataka is ascribed to Nāgārjuna in part of the MSS. The Ārogyamañ jarī and Vārttāmālā, known from some quotations, were probably treatises of an āyurvedic type. More quotations from works of Nāgārjuna that contain āyurvedic material are found in a number of medical treatises. 220

Nāgārjuna is in particular associated with the treatment of eye diseases. He attained the siddhi of the eye medicine according to Tāranātha's 'Book of the seven revelations'. ²²¹ An ophthalmological treatise, now lost, but used by later Chinese medical authors, is listed in the *Sung Shih*. ²²² The formula of the nāgārjunavarti, a medicine against eye diseases, found for the first time in Vṛnda's *Siddhayoga*, became famous and was incorporated in many medical works of a later date; this medicine, which contains copper and copper sulphate, was written by Nāgārjuna on a pillar in Pātaliputra. ²²³

Nāgārjuna's association with rasāyana and longevity forms the link between medicine and alchemy. He is credited with a very long life and the elixir of longevity. ²²⁴ A Rasāyanasanhitā of Nāgār juna is quoted by Vangasena. Al-Bīrūnī attributes a comprehensive book on this subject to him. ²²⁵

Nāgārjuna is said to be the author of alchemical treatises. He is frequently mentioned as an authority on the subject and regarded as a Rasasiddha, called Siddhanāgārjuna. ²²⁶ His association with alchemy need not surprise because a large work, attributed to him, the *Mahāprajñāpāramitopadeśa*, ²²⁷ refers to the transmutation of metals and other substances into gold. ²²⁸ Aurifaction is one of Nāgārjuna's interests in the biographies. ²²⁹

Nāgārjuna is in particular an expert on metallurgy and the use of metals and metallic compounds in medicine. He is credited with a *Lohaśāstra*, a treatise on iron and other metals, extensively quoted in the *Cakradatta* ²³⁰ and later works. References by Ādhamalla, Kāśīrāma and the commentator on the *Rasendramangala* give evidence of Nāgārjuna's preoccupation with iron and its varieties. ²³¹ His knowledge about swords ²³² is probably connected with this preoccupation.

A number of works on magic and marvellous feats are fathered upon a Nāgārjuna, who is usually considered to be identical with the alchemist. Well-known among these treatises are the Kakṣapuṭa and Yogaratnamālā. The biographies relate that Nāgārjuna was an expert in treasure-finding, ²³³ making himself invisible, ²³⁴ etc. He learned the art from a master-magician, called Saraha or Rāhula; ²³⁵ this teacher is replaced by another great magician, Pādaliptasūri, in the Jain sources. ²³⁶

Nāgārjuna's treatises on erotics, called Kāmaśāstra, Ratiramaņa and Ratiśāstra, probably represent one and the same work.

As I have mentioned, the Mādhyamika philosopher Nāgārjuna developed into a legendary figure in a wide cultural area. Material relating to his life, activities and works is found in Indian, Tibetan and Chinese sources.²³⁷ This hagiographic literature depicts him as a composite personality, whose biography lends itself to embellishments of all sorts. The stories concerning his life and activities were in the course of time adapted to the needs of Buddhist, Hindu and Jain communities, ²³⁸ as can be illustrated by the works attributed to him and the holy places where he is said to have resided.

The Yogaśataka, a treatise not coloured by a particular religious persuasion, is said to be by Nāgārjuna in Buddhist and by Vararuci in Hindu circles.

The Buddhist accounts of his life mention Bodhgayā and Nālandā²³⁹ as places he visited on his wide travels; the Hindus believe that he stayed at the holy mountain site of Śrīparvata, ²⁴⁰ while the Jain stories associate him with their sacred mountain Śatruñiaya. ²⁴¹

Another place connected with Nāgārjuna is Nāgārjunakoṇḍā. ²⁴² The reference to a Nāgārjuna who was a native of the fort Daihak near Somnāth, found in al-Bīrūnī's India, is, I suppose, based on Jain sources which describe him as a resident of Gujarāt.

Medical works ascribed to Nāgārjuna²⁴³ are:

- 1 Ārogyamañjarī. 244 Quoted by Niścalakara 245 and Vijayarakşita. 246
- 2 Āryamūlakoṣamahauṣadhāvalī. This work, lost in the original, is preserved in a Tibetan translation. Tibetan title: Hphags-pa rća-bahi mjod sman chen-pohi rimpa; translated by Chos-skyon bzah-po (Dharmapālabhadra) from the monastery of Za-lu. 247
- 3 Āryarājanāmavaţikā. This treatise, lost in the original, is preserved in a Tibetan translation. Tibetan title: Hphags-pa rgyal-ma źes-bya-bahi ril-bu. 248
- 4 Avabhesajakalpa. This work, lost in the original, is preserved in a Tibetan translation. Tibetan title: Sman a-bahi cho-ga. ²⁴⁹
- 5 Bdud-rći bum-pa. 250
- 6 Cittānandapatīyasī. 251
- 7 Dhūpayogacaturangakriyā. This work, lost in the original, is preserved in a Tibetan translation. Tibetan title: Spos-kyi sbyor-ba rehu-char byas-pa. 252
- 8 Dhūpayogaratnamālā. This work, lost in the original, is preserved in a Tibetan translation. Tibetan title: Spos sbyor rin-po-chehi phren-ba. Translated by an unknown pandita from Kaśmīr, assisted by Rin-chen bzań-po. 253
- 9 Gces-bsdus. 254
- 10 Gnad-hgrel gcig-śes kun-grol.²⁵⁵
- 11 Gsan-thig skar-khuns phye-ba hdra. 256
- 12 Gso mara ća mje gso-bahi rgyud. 257
- 13 Jalastambhanamantra.²⁵⁸
- 14 Jīvasūtra.259
- 15 Kaksaputa. 260
- 16 Kalyānakāmadhenu.²⁶¹

- 17 Kāmaśāstra, 262
- 18 Kanakamañ jarī. 263
- 19 Kautūhalacintāmani. 264
- 20 Kautukacintāmani. 265
- 21 Laghuyogaratnāvalī. 266
- 22 Lag-len gsal-bahi sgron-me. 267
- 23 Lauha- or Lohaśāstra. ²⁶⁸ Quoted in Cakradatta, ²⁶⁹ Rasakāmadhenu, ²⁷⁰ Rasendracintāmaņi, ²⁷¹ Śivadāsasena's commentary on the Cakradatta, ²⁷² and Vangasena's Cikitsāsārasamgraha. ²⁷³ Nāgārjuna's Lohatantra, probably identical with the Lohaśāstra, is referred to in Sureśvara's Lohasarvasva. ²⁷⁴ The quotations in the commentaries of Āḍhamalla and Kāṣṣrāma on the Śārngadharasaṃhitā ²⁷⁵ are apparently from Nāgārjuna's Lohaśāstra, as well as Haridattaṣṣṣtrin's quotation ²⁷⁶ and one found in Śivadāsa's commentary on the Carakasamhitā. ²⁷⁷
- 24 Mahendrakalpa.²⁷⁸ Quoted by Niścala.²⁷⁹
- 25 Mdo lna. ²⁸⁰
- 26 Mgo-thig rin-chen gnad-hgrel. 281
- 27 Nāgārjuna.282
- 28 Nāgārjunakalpa. 283
- Nāgārjunatantra.²⁸⁴ Mentioned in Khare's commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya²⁸⁵ and Śivadāsasena's commentary on the Carakasannhitā.²⁸⁶ Śivadāsa probably refers to the Lohaśāstra or -tantra.
- 30 Nāgārjunavaidyaka. 287
- 31 Nāgārjunīya.²⁸⁸ Quoted by Gayadāsa²⁸⁹ and Niścalakara.²⁹⁰
- 32 Rasaratnākara.²⁹¹
- 33 Rasārņava.²⁹²
- 34 Rasasiddhiśāstra. 293
- 35 Rasāyanasanıhitā. 294 Quoted by Vangasena. 295
- 36 Rasendramangala. 296
- 37 Ratiramana. 297
- 38 Ratiśāstra. 298
- 39 Réa-thig gser-gyi thig-le. 299
- 40 Sārasamgraha. 300
- 41 Sa-thig rin-chen sags-pa. 301
- 42 Siddhanāgārjunīya. 302
- 43 Siddhaprayogatantra. 303
- 44 Somarāia.304
- 45 Vaidyanighantu. 305
- 46 Vārttāmālā. 306 Quoted by Niścalakara 307 and Śrīkanthadatta. 308
- 47 Yan-lag gnad-kyi mjub-brćugs. 309
- 48 Yantramantra.310
- 49 Yogamañjarī. 311 Quoted by Niścalakara. 312
- 50 Yogamuktāvalī. 313
- 51 Yogaratnamālā. 314
- 52 Yogasāra. 315 Quoted by Trimalla 316 and Vangasena 317. A Yogasāra that may well

be Nāgārjuna's work of this title ³¹⁸ is cited in the *Pāradasaṃḥitā*, ³¹⁹ Trimalla's *Yogataraṅgiṇ*ī, ³²⁰ and the latter's *Bṛḥadyogataraṅgiṇ*ī. ³²¹

53 Yogaśataka. 322

Works sometimes ascribed to Nāgārjuna are the Rasakakṣāpuṭa, 323 Rasavaiśeṣikasūtra, 324 and Rudrayāmalatantra. 325

Nāgārjuna is also credited with the revision of the $Su\acute{s}rutasanhhit\bar{a}$ and the addition of its Uttaratantra. 326

A Kautukasāroddhāra is said to be based on the Nāgārjunasaṃhitā. 327 A Nāgārjunakautuka is also recorded, 328 as well as a Nāgārjunasiddhānta on rasāyana. 329 A Nāgārjunīvidyā was written by an unknown Jain author. 330

The nāgār jun $\bar{1}$ yāḥ, the adherents to the school of Nāgārjuna, are referred to in Narahari's $V\bar{a}gbhaṭakhaṇḍanamaṇḍana$.

Joseph Needham mentions that the bibliography of the Sui Shu (History of the Sui dynasty) lists three lost medical treatises of Nāgārjuna: the Lung-Shu Phu-Sa Yao Fang (Pharmaceutics of the Bodhisattva Nāgārjuna), Lung-Shu Phu-Sa Yang Shêng Fang (Macrobiotic prescriptions of the Bodhisattva Nāgārjuna) and Lung-Shu Phu-Sa Ho Hsiang Fa (Methods of the Bodhisattva Nāgārjuna for compounding perfumes). The bibliography of the Sung Shih (History of the Sung dynasty) records a lost Lung-Shu Yen Lun (Discourse of Nāgārjuna on eye diseases), used in the composition of later works, such as the sixteenth-century Yen Kho Lung-Mu Lun (Nāgārjuna's discussions on ophthalmology). 332

Works and authors quoting Nāgārjuna or referring to him are: 333 Ādhamalla, 334 Ānandakanda, ³³⁵ Anantakumāra, ³³⁶ Āśubodha and Nityabodha Senagupta's commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, ³³⁷ Āyurvedaprakāśa, ³³⁸ Basavarājīya, ³³⁹ Bhāratabhaişajyaratnākara, 340 Bheşajasamhitā, 341 Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, Bhoja's Yuktika-Ipataru, 342 Brhadrasarā jasundara, 343 Cakrapānidatta's Cikitsāsamgraha, 344 Candrata's Yogaratnasamuccaya, Caturbhuja's commentary on the Rasahrdaya, 345 an anonymous Cikitsāsārasangraha, 346 Dalhana, 347 Dattarāma's Brhadrasarājasundara, 348 Dhanvantarīyanighantu, 349 Gayadāsa, 350 Gopāladāsa's Cikitsāmrta, Govindadāsa's Bhaisajyaratnāvalī, 351 Gulrājšarmamišra's commentary on the Āyurvedaprakāša, 352 Haridattaśāstrin's commentary on the Rasatarangini, 353 Hazārīlāl Sukul's commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, 354 Jinadattasūri, 355 Kāmaratna, 356 Kāśīrāma, 357 Khare's commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, ³⁵⁸ Lauhapradīpa, Lohapaddhati, ³⁵⁹ Nāganātha's Nidānapradīpa, Niścalakara, ³⁶⁰ Pāradasaṃhitā, ³⁶¹ Rasacaṇ�āṃśu, ³⁶² Rasa jalanidhi, 363 Rasakakṣā puṭa, Rasakā madhenu, 364 Rasam añ jarī, 365 Rasapaddhati, 366 Rasaprakāśasudhākara, 367 Rasarājalaksmī, 368 Rasarājasundara, 369 Rasaratnadīpikā, 370 Rasaratnākara, 371 Rasaratnapradīpa, 372 Rasaratnasamuccaya, 373 Rasasamketakalikā, 374 Rasasindhu, 375 Rasataranginī, 376 Rasayogasāgara, 377 Rasendracintāmani, 378 Rasendracūdāmani, 379 Rasendramanigala, 380 Rasendrapurāna, 381 Rasendraratnakosa, 382 Rasendrasambhava, 383 Rasendrasārasamgraha, 384 Rasopanisad, 385 Ratnākarausadhayogagrantha, Revanasiddha's Vīrabhattīya, Śābaratantra, 386 Samksiptasāra, 387 Siddhasārasamhitā, Śivadāsasena, 388 Sodhala, 389 Śrīkanthadatta, 390 Svarņaraupyasiddhisāstra, ³⁹¹ Toḍara, ³⁹² Trimalla, ³⁹³ Vaidyakasāroddhāra, ³⁹⁴ Vaidyakasāstrapravartakācāryanāmasamuccaya, Vaṅgasena, ³⁹⁵ Vāsudeva's Vāsudevānubhava, Vijayaraksita, ³⁹⁶ Vṛnda, ³⁹⁷ and Yogaratnākara. ³⁹⁸

Indian sources in Sanskrit and Prakrit, giving accounts of Nāgārjuna's life or referring to his activities ³⁹⁹ are: the Bṛhatkathāmañjarī of Kṣemendra, ⁴⁰⁰ Caturaṣītisiddhapravṛtti of Abhayadatta, ⁴⁰¹ Gorakṣasiddhāntasaṇgraha, ⁴⁰² Haṛṣacarita of Bāṇa, ⁴⁰³ Kathāsaritsāgara of Somadeva, ⁴⁰⁴ Kumārapālapratodhaprabandha, ⁴⁰⁵ Kumārapālapratibodha of Somaprabhācārya, ⁴⁰⁶ Kumārapālapratibodhasaṇkṣepa, ⁴⁰⁷ Līlāvatīpariṇaya of Kutūhala, ⁴⁰⁸ Navanāthacaritra, ⁴⁰⁹ the commentary on the Piṇḍavisuddhi, ⁴¹⁰ Prabandhacintāmaṇi of Merutunga, ⁴¹¹ Prabandhakośa of Rājašekharasūri, ⁴¹² Prabhāvakacarita of Prabhācandrasūri, ⁴¹³ Purātanaprabandhasaṃgraha, ⁴¹⁴ Rājataraṅgiṇī of Kalhaṇa, ⁴¹⁵ Śābaratantra, ⁴¹⁶ Sādhanamālā, ⁴¹⁷ the commentary on the Śatruñjayakalpa-of Dharmaghoṣa, ⁴¹⁸ Siddhānām āmnāyaḥ, ⁴¹⁹ and Vividhatī rthakalpa of Jinaprabhāsūri, ⁴²⁰

The Navanāthacaritra of Gaurana, written in Telugu, describes a visit of Nāgārjuna to Śrīśaila; this work refers to an Ātreya as an alchemist and a pupil of Nāgārjuna. 421 Nāgārjuna is also mentioned in Devacandra's Rājāvalikathā. 422

Another Nāgārjuna known to the Jain tradition was a disciple of Himavant; he is referred to in the Nandisutta. 423

Tibetan sources on Nāgārjuna ⁴²⁴ and his life are the Āryamañjuśrīmūlakalpa, ⁴²⁵ Bkaḥbabs bdun-ldan of Tāranātha, ⁴²⁶ Chos-ḥbyuṅ of Bu-ston, ⁴²⁷ Dpag-bsam ljon bzaṅ of Sum-pa mkhan-po Ye-śes dpal-ḥbyor, ⁴²⁸ Grub-mtha śel-gyi me-loṅ of Rdo-rje-ḥchaṅ blo-bzaṅ Chos-kyi ñi-ma, ⁴²⁹ Grub-thob brgyad-cu-rća-bźiḥi lugs-ḥſin ćhul, ⁴³⁰ Grub-thob brgyad-cu-rća-bźiḥi rgyus of Smon-grub Śes-rab, ⁴³¹ Grub-thob brgyad-cu-rća-bźiḥi rnam-thar, ⁴³² and Rgya-gar chos-ḥbyuṅ of Tāranātha. ⁴³³

The thirteenth-century Tibetan monk Dharmasvāmin also wrote a biography of Nāgārjuna. 434

Many references to Nāgārjuna are found in the biography of the Elder G-yu-thog yon-tan mgon-po. 435

Chinese accounts of Nāgārjuna and his life are found in the records left by Chinese pilgrims who visited India 436, Kumāra jīva's biography, 437 and some other works. 438

Nāgārjuna is referred to as a source on iatrochemistry in a Persian medical treatise, the *Majmū'ā-i Dīyā'ī* by Dīyā Muḥammad Mas'ūd Rashīd Zangī 'Umar Ghaznavī, who lived during the reign of Muhammad ibn Tughluq (A.D. 1325–1351). 439

Chapter 9

Authorities mentioned in the Suśrutasamhitā, but absent from the Carakasamhitā

Authorities mentioned in the Suśrutasamhitā are: 1

- o Aupadhenava Sū.1.3; 4.9.
- o Aurabhra Sū.1.3; 4.9.
- o Dhanvantari very often.
- o Divodāsa Sū.1.3; U.66.3.
- o Gopuraraksita Sū.1.3.
- Karavīrya or Krtavīrya Sū.1.3; Śā.3.32.
- Kāśipati Sū.1.41; U.18.3.
- Kāśirāja Sū.1.3; U.40.7.
- o Mārkandeya Śā.3.32.
- Pārāśarya Śā.3.32.
- o Pauskalāvata Sū.1.3; 4.9.
- Saunaka Sā.3.32.
- Subhūti Gautama Śā.3.32.
- o Suśruta Sū.1.3 and 4.9; Ni.7.3; Ci.2.3; Ka.1.3; U.39.4 and 66.4.
- o Vaitarana Sū.1.3.
- o Videha U.1.5.

AUPADHENAVA ^{la} is mentioned in the *Suśrutasaṃhit*ā as an authority on surgery and as the author of a textbook on that subject. ¹ The list of pupils of Divodāsa, who was Suśruta's teacher, is headed by Aupadhenava. ²

References to Aupadhenava are found in Cakrapāṇidatta's Bhānumatī, ³ Candraṭa's Yogaratnasamuccaya and commentary on the Cikitsākalikā, ⁴ Dalhaṇa's Nibandhasamgraha, ⁵ and Hārāṇacandra's commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. ⁶ Todara's Āyurvedasaukhya contains a quotation said to be from Aupadhenava and the Cikitsāsārasaṃgraha; ⁷ these verses, dealing with the transformation of rasa into rakta, etc., form, strangely enough, also part of the Carakasamhitā. ⁸

AURABHRA⁹ is an authority on surgery and the author of a treatise on that subject according to the Suśrutasaṃhitā, ¹⁰ which mentions him as one of the fellow pupils of Suśruta. ¹¹

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Aurabhra or Urabhra 12 are: Anantakumāra, the Bhesaijamañjūsāsannaya, Candrata, 13 Dalhana, 14 Dāmodara, 15 Indu, 16

the Kairalī commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā, ¹⁷ Narasiṃha, ¹⁸ Śrīdāsapandita, ¹⁹ and Vinodalāla Sena. ²⁰

Although usually regarded as a specialist in śalya, ²¹ the quotations show that the treatise attributed to this authority comprised more than surgery; it also dealt with basic concepts, ²² weights and measures, ²³ materia medica, ²⁴ kāyacikitsā, ²⁵ and kaumārabhṛtya. ²⁶

The disease called somaroga was known to Aurabhra.²⁷ He also described eight types of masūrikā, each of which has a particular name.²⁸ One of Anantakumāra's quotations is concerned with the aetiology and symptomatology of āma-, śarkarā-and gulmaśūla,²⁹ three types of this disease not separately characterized in the Mādhavanidāna.³⁰ The references to somaroga and the eight varieties of masūrikā suggest that the treatise from which they derive cannot belong to an early period and must have been distinct from Aurabhra's śalyatantra mentioned in the Suśrutasaṇḥitā. The dialogue between Ātreya as a teacher and Urabhra as his pupil on the disease called tāṇḍavaroga, found in Vinodalāla Sena's Āyurvedavijāāna, proves that even late authors tried to impress their readers by ascribing verses to authorities like Ātreya and Urabhra.

GOPURARAKŞITA ³¹ or Gopura is mentioned as one of the fellow students of Suśruta in the *Suśrutasamhitā*. ³² Dalhaṇa refers to him as the author of a śalyatantra ³³ and the Indian tradition still regards him as such. ³⁴

Gopuraraksita is quoted and referred to by Niścalakara, ³⁵ Śivadāsasena, ³⁶ and Todara. ³⁷ Gopura is quoted by Candrata and Todara. ³⁸ A Goraksita, mentioned in the *Mādhavacikitsā*, ³⁹ may or may not be the same as Gopuraraksita.

Some regard Gopuraraksita as a compound, designating two individuals, Gopura and Raksita, ⁴⁰ but an authority called Raksita is completely unknown in āyurvedic literature, whereas both Gopura and Gopuraraksita are quoted.

Śivadāsasena's quotation from Gopurarakṣita and one of Ṭoḍara's quotations are about the quantities of dried and fresh drugs to be used in the preparation of medicinal compounds. The quotations from Gopura in Ṭoḍara's Āyurvedasaukbya are from a treatise with a much broader scope than śalya; they deal with the definition of technical terms, physiology, ariṣtas, symptomatology, and the treatment of several diseases belonging to the realm of kāyacikitsā.

KARAVĪRYA or -vīra ⁴¹ is mentioned as a fellow pupil of Suśruta at the beginning of the Suśrutasaṃhitā. Dalhaṇa refers to him as the author of a śalyatantra ⁴² and he is still regarded as such in the Indian tradition. ⁴³

The Suśrutasamhitā refers to an authority called Krtavīrya 44 in the section of the third chapter of the Śārīrasthāna where a number of sages discuss which part of the embryo develops first. Krtavīrya advances that this part is the heart because it is the seat of buddhi and manas. 45 The Carakasamhitā attributes this view to Kānkāyana, 46 the Bhelasamhitā to Parāśara. 47

An ancient ācārya called Karavīra is quoted by Niścala on the treatment of a form of kustha. ⁴⁸ A verse, dealing with the treatment of vātavyādhi, ascribed to Kārtavīrya,

is found in Todara's \bar{A} yurvedasaukhya. ⁴⁹ Vijayarakṣita and Vacaspati quote a verse of Karavīrācārya in their commentaries on the $M\bar{a}$ dhavanidāna. ⁵⁰ This verse, also found in the \bar{A} yurvedābdhisāra, ⁵¹ is about types of atīsāra unsuitable for treatment. These quotations are obviously not from a treatise exclusively devoted to surgery.

G. Hāldār regards Karavīra, on account of his name, as a resident of Karavīrapura ⁵² and assigns him to the tenth or eleventh century. ⁵³ Hemarā jaśarman proposed the same derivation of Karavīrya's name and added as an alternative explanation that it may refer to the dexterity (vīrya) of his hands (kara) as a surgeon. ⁵⁴

PUŞKALĀVATA ⁵⁵ is an ancient medical authority and the reputed author of a lost tantra on surgery (śalya). ⁵⁶

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Puskalāvata are: Anantakumāra,⁵⁷ Cakrapāṇidatta,⁵⁸ Candrata,⁵⁹ Indu,⁶⁰ Gayadāsa,⁶¹ the *Kairalī* commentary on the *Aṣṭāṇgaḥṛdayasaṃḥitā*,⁶² Niścala,⁶³ Śivadāsasena,⁶⁴ Śrīdāsapaṇḍita,⁶⁵ Suśruta,⁶⁶ Ṭodara,⁶⁷ and Vāgbhata.⁶⁸

Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikitsāsaṃgraha contains one verse taken from Puṣkalāvata. ⁶⁹
A medical treatise called Pauṣkalī is mentioned in the introductory verses of the MS of an Ātreyasamhitā. ⁷⁰

The quotations ⁷¹ show that Puskalāvata's treatise was a śalyatantra, partly in verse, partly in prose, which also dealt with general subjects ⁷² and the treatment of diseases belonging to internal medicine. ⁷³ Its verses were composed in a variety of metres, mixed with some prose. ⁷⁴

Puṣkalāvata's name refers to the ancient city of Puṣkalāvatī in Gandhāra,⁷⁵ mentioned in the *Rāmāyaṇa*,⁷⁶ some Purāṇas,⁷⁷ and other works. ⁷⁸ Greek authors were acquainted with the city.⁷⁹

VAITARANA 80 is one of the fellow pupils of Susruta. 81 The Indian tradition regards him therefore as the author of a treatise on surgery. 82

Vaitarana is quoted or referred to by Anantakumāra, ⁸³ Cakrapāṇidatta, ⁸⁴ Candra-ta, ⁸⁵ Dalhaṇa, ⁸⁶ Gayadāsa, ⁸⁷ Indu, ⁸⁸ the author of the *Kairalī* commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the *Aṣṭāṇgaḥṛdayasaṇihitā*, ⁸⁹ Niścalakara, ⁹⁰ Śivadāsasena, ⁹¹ Śrīdāsapandita, ⁹² Śrīkanthadatta, ⁹³ Todara, ⁹⁴ and Vāgbhata. ⁹⁵

Cakrapāṇidatta incorporated a verse of Vaitaraṇa in his Cikitsāsaṇigraha. 96

Vaitarana is also known in Buddhist literature. The *Ayoghara jātaka* (Nr. 510) mentions him as Vetarani, together with Dhanvantari and Bhoja, as a toxicologist. The *Visuddhimagga* refers to him as a medical authority in general. ⁹⁷

The quotations are from a treatise that was not exclusively devoted to surgery. It also dealt with general principles of medicine, ⁹⁸ general methods of treatment, ⁹⁹ internal medicine, ¹⁰⁰ śālākya, ¹⁰¹ and toxicology. ¹⁰² A particulartype of kṣārabasti is called after Vaitarana. ¹⁰³

Chapter 10 Commentaries on the Suśrutasamhitā

AMITAPRABHA. The single reference to an author of this name in Dalhana's Nibandhasamgraha need not imply that he wrote a commentary on the Susrutasamhitā. 1

ARUNADATTA is credited with a commentary on the Suśrutasamhitā.²

BAKULA may have written a commentary on the Suśrutasamhitā. 3

BHĀSKARA was the author of a PAÑJIKĀ on the Suśrutasamhitā, 4 as indicated by Dalhana in the introduction to his Nibandhasamgraha, where he states to have made use of this work in composing his own commentary. Dalhana, however, never quotes Bhāskara by name, 5 but refers to the views of the Pañjikākāra and the Pañjikā, who may or may not be Bhāskara and his work, since two commentaries called thus were consulted by Dalhana, the one written by Gayadasa, the other one by Bhaskara. Only in the instances where Dalhana mentions that the two Panjikakaras agree on a particular point, is it possible to be sure that Gayadasa and Bhaskara are meant, but it is difficult to determine whom he had in mind when he quotes the Pañjikā or Pañjikākāra and the commentaries called Brhat-, Mahā-, and Laghupañjikā. The Brhat- or Mahāpañjikā is usually assumed to be Gayadāsa's commentary, probably because those parts which have been preserved show it to be an extensive work, and presumably too because of Gayadāsa's position as Dalhana's chief authority. Convincing evidence on this point is not available. A hint pointing to Gayadasa as the author of the Brhat- or Mahāpañ jikā may be that Gayadāsa's name precedes that of Bhāskara in the introduction to the Nibandhasamgraha.

In a single instance, the Pañjikākāra and the Pañjikā of the Nibandhasaṃgraha can be identified as Gayadāsa and his work on account of a quotation, attributed by Dalhaṇa to the Pañjikākāra, that agrees with a statement of Gayadāsa.⁶

The Laghupañjikā is quoted once, together with the $Brhatpañjika.^7$ The two Pañjikākāras are quoted three times by Dalhaṇa.

A medical authority called Bhāskara is referred to in Akalanka's Vidyāvinoda, Mādhava Kavirāja's Mugdhabodha, Mādhava Upādhyāya's Āyurvedaprakāśa, 9 and in the Nāsīrasāhī Kankālīgrantha. The identity of the commentator with this Bhāskara or one of these Bhāskaras is unlikely.

Bhāskara is a name associated with the medical science in various works. In some cases, for example in the Jñānabhāskara, he may be the same as Sūrya, the sun god. The Brahmavaivartapurāna mentions him as the author of a medical Bhāskarasarnhitā

and the teacher of sixteen pupils, each of whom composed an āyurvedic treatise. ¹⁰ This tradition is reflected in the *Bṛhannighaṇṭuratnākara*, a work that admits Bhāskara in a list of eighteen saṃhitākāras. ¹¹

Recipes attributed to a Bhāskara occur sporadically in medical treatises. ¹² Some texts ascribe rasayogas to him ¹³ and regard him as one of the Rasasiddhas. ¹⁴

Several historical personalities of medical repute called Bhāskara are known. Keśava, the father of Vopadeva and the author of the Siddhamantra, clearly states to have received his medical knowledge from Bhāskara. The grandfather of Śārngadeva, who composed the Samgītaratnākara and was also well versed in āyurveda, was called Bhāskara. P.V. Sharma assumes that this Bhāskara was the father and teacher of Sodhala. 15 P.V. Sharma also interprets the first verse of the Yogaratnamālā attributed to Nāgārjuna as a eulogy of a guru called Bhāskara.

Evidence concerning the identity of one of these Bhāskaras with the commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* is not available. ¹⁶ The chronological positions of Keśava and Śārngadeva speak against it, while the name of Sodhala's father is disputed.

The date of the pañjikākāra Bhāskara can only approximately be established. Some references by Dalhaṇa show that he is later than Bhaṭṭāraharicandra and Jejjaṭa ¹⁷, and probably earlier than Brahmadeva. ¹⁸ The close association of Gayadāsa and Bhāskara in Dalhaṇa's *Nibandhasaṇgraha* may indicate that both commentators belong to the same period. These data are in favour of placing Bhāskara in the period between A.D. 700 and 1050, most probably in the tenth or the first half of the eleventh century. ¹⁹

BRAHMADEVA's ²⁰ commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā was one of Dalhaṇa's sources, as explicitly stated in the introduction to his Nibandhasaṃgraha, where Mādhava and Brahmadeva are mentioned as authors of a tippana on the Suśrutasamhitā.

The medical author called Brahmadeva is quoted or referred to by Cakrapānidatta, ²¹ Dalhaṇa, ²² Hemādri, ²³ Kṛṣṇadatta in his commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, Śivadāsasena, ²⁴ and Śrīkaṇṭhadatta. ²⁵

Brahmadeva may also have written a commentary on the Carakasamhitā. 26

The numerous references to Brahmadeva in the *Vyākhyākusumāvalī* on the *Siddhayoga* induced P.K. Gode, who overlooked the majority of Dalhaṇa's quotations and references, to write an article in which he supposed Brahmadeva to be the author of a commentary on the *Siddhayoga*,²⁷ but a closer look at the data reveals that such a commentary never existed. More than half of the quotations from Brahmadeva in the *Kusumāvalī* are also found in Dalhaṇa's commentary, usually without specification of their origin, which warrants the conclusion that they derive from Brahmadeva's commentary on the *Suśnutasaṃhitā*.²⁸ This conclusion is corroborated by the fact that the *Kusumāvalī* quotes Brahmadeva on verses which are for the larger part taken from the *Suśnutasamhitā*.

Brahmadeva's views were at variance or in agreement with those of predecessors like Bhāsadatta, Svāmidāsa, Āṣāḍhavarınan, 30 Suvīra, 31 Jejjaṭa, 32 Bhāskara, 33 and Gayadāsa. 34 Videha is an authority quoted with approval by Brahmadeva. 35 Dalhaṇa's attitude toward him varies from acceptance 36 to rejection. 37 Valuable are the variants of the text of the Suśrutasamhitā, as read by Brahmadeva, which are preserved in the

Nibandhasamgraha.38

Contributions of Brahmadeva to medical knowledge are: definitions of the actions of drugs called grāhin and stambhana, ³⁹ a classification of the types of ākṣepaka, ⁴⁰ the acceptance of forty-eight kṣudrarogas ⁴¹ and eleven śirorogas, ⁴² a definition of rasā-yana, ⁴³ and the distinction of three types of vājīkaraṇa. ⁴⁴ He had his own opinions on the identity of medicinal substances ⁴⁵ and was obviously acquainted with plants from foreign countries. ⁴⁶

Brahmadeva's commentary was in prose, but contained some verse too, 47 probably quoted from earlier works.

The identity of the commentator Brahmadeva has been discussed by A.F.R. Hoernle, 48 who suggested that he might be the same as Śrībrahma, the father of the Maheśvara who wrote the Viśvaprakāśa and a lost Sāhasāṅkacarita. 49 Since Maheśvara composed his Viśvaprakāśa in 1111/1112, his father must have lived about 1080. As will be demonstrated, this date does not agree with Brahmadeva's chronological position. 50

Brahmadeva's terminus ad quem can be deduced from Cakrapāṇidatta's reference to him. The terminus post quem presents more difficulties. Brahmadeva is posterior to Jejjaṭa, as clearly stated by Dalhaṇa, 51 which means that he is later than the seventh or eighth century. Dalhaṇa also seems to indicate that the Pañjikākāras Bhāskara and Gayadāsa antedated him. 52 This is corroborated with regard to Gayadāsa by a remark in the Nibandhasaṃgraha, claiming that Brahmadeva follows Gayadāsa in regarding a particular verse of the Suśrutasaṃhitā as unauthentic. 53 These two statements may in my opinion be accepted as proofs demonstrating that Gayadāsa preceded Brahmadeva, though A.F.R. Hoernle, who already noticed Dalhaṇa's second remark in 1906, 54 remained cautious with regard to the chronological implication. The evidence, taken together, establishes that Brahmadeva is later than Gayādasa (about A.D. 1000) and earlier than Cakrapāṇidatta (about A.D. 1060). 55

CAKRAPĀŅIDATTA ⁵⁶ wrote a commentary, called *Bhānumatī*, on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*; the part of this commentary that deals with the Sūtrasthāna has been preserved. ⁵⁷

Authorities and works quoted or referred to in it are: Āgama (1.16; 21.9; 24.8, etc), ⁵⁸ Apūracitta (6.9), Aupadhenava (1.3 and 12–13; 4.9; 6.5), bauddhāḥ (1.6–7), Bhāluki (2.3; 6.5; 8.5, twice), Bhaṭṭa (1.16; 40.13–14), ⁵⁹ Bhaṭṭāraharicandra (1.1–2; 6.12), Bhela (15.19; 37.9), Bhoja (1.6–7; 6.5; 8.6–7, six quotations; 11. 12–13, twice; 14.5 and 20; 15.37–38; 16.1–2, 3–5, 15; 18.18; 19.32–37; 21.9; 22.9–10; 25.27–28; 27.12; 36.7–8; 45.61cd–63, 134–140ab, 197cd–198ab), Caraka (passim), ⁶⁰ dākṣiṇā-tyāḥ (16.27–32), Dhanvantari (1.1–2, 3–4, 6–7; 40.11–12), Drahabala (1.25; 6.10), Gītā (1.1–2), Hārīta (1.29; 2.3; 14.10; 32.4, twice; 45.21 and 157cd–158; 46.12–14), Harivaṃśa (1.1–2), Jatūkarṇa (1.1–2, twice; 45.21), jyotiḥśāstra (2.4; 16.3–5), yyotiḥśāstra (16.3), Kapila (6.12), Kārttikakuṇḍa (35.18), Kāśirāja (1.3–4), Kaśyapa (11.15), Kāśyapa (12.7), Kāśyapīya (6.9 and 10), Kṣārapāṇi (31.17–29), Kumāratantra (16.3–5), Nandin (44.26cd–27), Nighaṇṭu (11.11–13), ⁶¹ Nimittagrantha (29.27–40), nimittaśāstra (29.41–45), Pārāśara (14.16), Puṣkalāvata (14.4–5), Sāṃkhya (1.16; 14.18; 24.4 and 8), Smṛti (1.1–2), tīrthikadarśana (1.6–7), Vācaspatimiśra's Sāṃ

khyatattvakaumudī (1.16), Vāgbhaṭa (14.5). Vaiseṣika (6.3), Vaitaraṇa (18.13-15 and 17-18), Varāha (44.26cd-27), vāstuvidyā (20.23-29), and Viśvāmitra (1.1-2; 11.11-13; 11.15, twice; 11.19-25; 14.14-15; 26.8; 45.21). Remarkable is the absence of quotations from Jejjata and Gayadāsa.

Cakrapāṇi quotes anonymously Kātyāyana's *Vārttika* (1.15), the *Mahābhāṣya* (1.1-2), *Manusmṛti* (1.22), *Nyāya* (e.g., 1.16), Pāṇini (1.1-2, 6-7, 15; 6.1-2 and 3, etc.), and the *Vaiśeṣikasūtras* (Sū.1.1-2).

The question whether the $Bh\bar{a}numat\bar{\iota}$ covered the whole of the $Su\acute{s}rutasamhit\bar{a}$ or part of it is clarified by the quotations which are said to derive from it and by a close scrutiny of quotations from Cakrapāṇidatta. 62

The Bhānumatīis quoted by Āḍhamalla, 63 Aghoranātha in the commentary on his Bhisaksarvasva, Gopāladāsa in his Cikitsāmrta, Niścalakara, 64 and Śivadāsasena. 65

Many quotations found in Niścala's $Ratnaprabh\bar{a}$ are from the $Bh\bar{a}numat\bar{\iota}$ on the Cikitsāsthāna and Uttaratantra. ⁶⁶

One of the quotations by Śivadāsasena⁶⁷ confirms that Cakrapāṇidatta commented on the Cikitsāsthāna. Another quotation warrants the same conclusion, since it is concerned with the identity of a plant not mentioned in the Sūtrasthāna, but only in the Cikitsāsthāna.⁶⁸

A number of quotations ascribed to Cakra, in particular among those found in Niścala's Ratnaprabhā, are also from the Bhānumatī. One quotation from Cakra⁶⁹ must be derived from his commentary on the Nidānasthāna, because it deals with the definition of a disease described in that section of the Suśrutasamhitā and absent from the Carakasamhitā. A.F.R. Hoernle⁷⁰ indicated some quotations from Cakra that may be from the Bhānumatī on the Cikitsāsthāna.⁷¹ The same author suggested that a quotation from Cakrapāṇi in the Nibandhasamgraha⁷² was taken from the commentary on the Uttaratantra. This suggestion is confirmed by Śivadāsasena,⁷³ who states that this remark of Cakra is found in the Bhānumatī.

These data indicate that Cakrapāṇidatta's commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā covered the whole treatise, ⁷⁴ which explains that its author was not only called Carakacaturānana but also Suśrutasahasranavana. ⁷⁵

The $Bh\bar{a}numat\bar{\imath}$ is an extensive commentary, of the same character as the $\bar{A}yurvedad\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}$ on the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$. One of the features which makes it very valuable consists of its references to the text of the $Su\acute{s}rutasamhit\bar{a}$ as read by Cakrapānidatta, and to variants adopted by others. ⁷⁶

The remarks by Cakrapāṇidatta regarding the identity of medicinal plants have been collected by Bāpālāl Vaidya. 77

CANDANA, quoted by Niścalakara, may be the author of a commentary on the Su-śrutasamhitā. 78

The CANDRIKĀ, only known from quotations, 79 is in many cases either a commentary on the $Su\acute{s}rutasamhit\bar{a}$ that has not been preserved or identical with Gayadāsa's $Ny\~{a}$ -yacandrikā. 80

The majority of the quotations from the Candrikā and its author, the Candrikākāra

or -kṛt, in Niścala's *Ratnaprabhā* on the *Cakradatta*⁸¹ are from a commentary on the *Suśrutasaṃbitā*. The author of this *Candrikā* is, as indicated by the citations, later than Suvīra and Jejjaṭa, ⁸² and earlier than Cakrapāṇidatta ⁸³ and Bakula. ⁸⁴ The opinions of the Candrikākāra conflicted with those of Kārttika. ⁸⁵

The Candrikā quotes a Nighaṇṭu 86 and refers to an interpretation of the dākṣiṇā-tyāḥ 87 on subjects dealt with in the Suśrutasamhitā.

The Candrikā was one of the sources of Dalhana's Nibandhasamgraha.88

The Candrikā profusely quoted as an important commentary by Niścala cannot be but Gayadāsa's commentary on the *Suśrutasamhitā*. An incontrovertible fact in support of this conclusion is the identity of the contents of a quotation from the *Candrikā* in Niścala's *Ratnaprabhā* with an opinion of Gayin cited in the *Kusumāvalī*. 89

One single quotation from a Candrikāsamgraha in Niścala's commentary on the Cakradatta is in verse. 90 The nature of this work is unknown.

 PALHAŅA⁹¹ wrote a commentary, called Nibandhasaṃgraha,⁹² on the Suśrutasaṃhitā.

Sources and authorities mentioned in this commentary are: Abhidhāna (U.55.4), Agniveśa (Ci.38,3-6; U.1.4cd-8ab; 39.5cd-7), Ālambāyana (Ka.7.7; 8.24cd-25ab, twice; 94 8.83-84 and 120), Amarakosa (Ka.1.4-6), Amitaprabha (Ci.24.83), anyasāstra (Sū.4.6; U.65.34), 95 Aruna (Ka.1.30), Atharvaveda (Ci.27.8-10; 28.9-13), atharvavidah (Ci.27.8-10), Aupadhenava (Sū.1.3; 4.9; U.39.5cd-7), Aurabhra (U.39. 5cd-7), Bandhaka (U.1.4cd-8ab), Bhadrasaunaka (Sū.12.4; U.1.4cd-8ab), Bhāluki (Sū.13.8, twice; Ci.37.117cd-123ab; U.39.45cd-46ab), Bhāskara (introduction), Bhattāra(ka)haricandra (Sū.21.38; 46.141-142), Bheda (Sū.33.19; U.1.4cd-8ab; 39.5cd-7), Bhoja, 96 Brahmadeva, 97 Brhallaghupañ jikāh (Sū.45.157), Brhatpañ jikākāra (U.1.4cd-8ab), Cakrapāni (U.49.19), Caksusyena (Ci.33.7; 40.6-9, twice), Candranandana (U.65.29), Candrikākāra (U.49.19), dāksinātvā bhisajah (Sū.16.32), Dhanvantari (Sū.1.1-2 and 3; U.40.7-8ab), dhātuvādinah (U.18.86), Divodāsa (U.1.3), Drdhabala (Ci.37.117cd-123ab; 40.21; U.25.11cd-13ab), Gālava (Sū.1.3), Gārgya (Sū.1.3), gaudāh (U.42.45), Gayadāsa (passim), Gopuraraksita (Sū.1.3); 4.9), Gūdhapadabhanga(tippana) (Ci.14.10; 18.25–26, twice), Hārīta (Ci.38.71–76; U.1.4cd-8ab; 39.5cd-7; 40.7-8ab), hastiśiksā (Ci.28.27-28), Jamadagni (Ci.11.11), 98 Janaka (U.1.4cd-8ab), Jātūkama (Sū.45.112-113; U.1.4cd-8ab; 39.5cd-7), Jejjata (many times), Jīvaka (U.1.4cd-8ab), jyautisikāh (Sū.6.5), jyotihśāstra (Sū.5.7; 32.4), jyotirvidah (Sū.6.14), kāmasāstra (Sū.35.12), kāmasūtra jūāh (U.39.276), kāmatantrācāryāḥ (Ni 14.6ab), Kānkāyana (Sū.1.3), Karāla (U.1.4cd-8ab; 7.46), Karavīra (Sū.4.9), Kārttika(kunda), 99 Kāsirāja (Sū.1.3; U.40.7-8ab), Kāsyapa (Sū.12.4; Śā.2.40; U.27.4-5), Kāśyapīya (U.57.9-11), Krsnātreya (Ci.40.51-53 and 70cd-71), Ksārapāni (Ci.37.100cd-101; U.1.4cd-8ab; 39.5cd-7 and 42), Kumāratantra (Śā.3.30), Laghuvāgbhata (Ci.14.8; 24.110-130ab), Laksmanatippana(ka) (Sū.16.3 and 18-19; 17.11-13), Mādhava (introduction; Sū.15.41), Mahāpañjikā (Sū.45.96 and 112-113), Nāgāriuna (Sū.1.1-2; Śā.4.80; Ka.7.11cd-12), 100 Nala (Sū.46.376ab, 396cd-397ab, 449-457), Nandin (Ni.13.3; Ka.8.5-8ab), nibandhāh (Sū.24.5; 27.9; 45.107-111; Ni.16.65-66; U.21.19), nibandhakārāh (Sū.12.11 and 38-39; 14.18 and 21; 15.28; 46.513; Śā.4.76; Ci.9.54-64ab; U.1.14; 17.27 and 34; 21.23-26; 24.3 and 19; 25.1–4; 26.24cd; 39.71–75ab, 143cd–144, 204cd–207; 40.182cd), Nimi, ¹⁰¹ Nyāya (Ci.28.27-28), Nyāyacandrikā (Sū.27.23-27), Pañjikā, Pañjikākāra, Pañjikākārau, 102 Parāśara (Ci.38.3-6 and 106-111; U.1.4cd-8ab; 39.5cd-7), paratantra (Śā.1.22; Ci. 28.27-28), 103 Parvataka (U.1.4cd-8ab), patañ jalimatānusārinah (Śā.1.4), pūrvācāryāh (Śā.1.4), rasāyanavāda (U.40.146), Rgveda (Ci.27.8-10), Śālākya (Sū.35.12; Ci.40. 69–70ab; U.10.4–6ab), Śalvatantra (U.10.4–6ab), samānatantra (U.45.29–33ab; 49.8; 54.33; 64.21 cd-31, ¹⁰⁴ Samgraha (Śā.4.18; Ka.1.28-34ab), Sāmkhya (Śā.1.9 and 22), sāmkhyāh (Śā.1.16), Sātyaki (U.7.25-26ab; 21.9-10; 25.13cd-15ab), saugatāh (U. 61.18cd-21), sauśrutīvāh (Ci.22.67cd-75), Sāvitra (Ka.3.5), 105 Śrīpati (Śā.1.11), 106 Sudhīra (Ci.1.24cd-27ab and 74cd-75ab; U.58.58-65ab), Sukīra (U.58.58-65ab), suśrutādhyāyinah (Sū.15.28; 16.26; U.25.1-4), Suvīra (Ni.13.3; Ci.1.38-39; Ka.8.5-8ab), svapnādhyā vasāstra (Sū.29.54cd-66), tīkākārāh (Śā.4.50 and 53-54; U.4.9cd), Upaskāra (U.42.54cd-55ab), ¹⁰⁷ Usanas (Ka.1.75cd-79ab), Vāgbhata (eighteen quotations), Vaisesika (Ci.28.27-28), Vaitarana (Ci.3.55-66; 7.30-36; U.55.51cd-52ab), Vangadatta (Ci.3.55-66), Varāha or Vārāha (Ni.13.3; Ka.8.5-8ab), Vasistha (Ka.8. 90-93), Vātsyāyana (Ni.14.3), Vedānta (Śā.1.7), Videha, ¹⁰⁸ Viśvāmitra (Ni.5.17; Śā.10.68-70; Ka.8.90-93; U.18.3; 54.39cd; 58.48-49ab; 66.3-4ab), Vrddhabhoja (U.41.36-39; 57.3), Vrddhakāśyapa (Śā.10.57; U.58.47), Vrddhasuśruta (Ci.31.8; 36.23-30ab; 37.7-14; 38.93-95; U.24.16cd-17), vrddhasuśrutādhyāyinalı (Ci.31.8; 37.7-14; 38.93-95), Vrddhavāgbhata (often), and Wāsa (Sū.34.6ab-7ab).

A commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha is also quoted by Palhaṇa (Śā.10.15). 109
A source not mentioned by Palhaṇa may be the Madhukośa on the Mādhavanidāna, which sometimes almost literally agrees with the text of the Nibandhasaṃgraha. 110
Long quotations in verse are found towards the end of Palḥana's work. 111

Dalhana records a large number of variants of the text of the *Suśrutasamhitā*, which shows that a number of different versions existed in his time and that he consulted many manuscripts. ¹¹² Variants mentioned by previous commentators, but not found in the manuscripts at his disposal, are disregarded by him. ¹¹³ The text of the *Suśrutasanhitā* regarded as authoritative by Dalhana does not always agree with the most current edition. ¹¹⁴ The readings of Jejjaṭa, Gayadāsa, and other commentators are quoted and discussed by him. Sometimes he remains neutral, ¹¹⁵ but on many occasions he takes sides, usually agreeing with Gayadāsa and rejecting Jejjaṭa's position. ¹¹⁶ Less frequently he sides with Jejjaṭa. ¹¹⁷ One of the commentators he obviously dislikes is Kārttikakunda. ¹¹⁸ It rarely happens that Dalhana, being dissatisfied with both Jejjaṭa's and Gayadāsa's interpretation, prefers another authority. ¹¹⁹ The traditions of old and experienced physicians were held in high regard by him, ¹²⁰ which made him also accept the judgment of his own teacher on controversial subjects. ¹²¹

<code>Dalhaṇa</code>'s interpretations of the <code>Suśrutasaṃhitā</code> are valuable, but this does not mean that he is always right. 122

Some noteworthy features of Dalhana's commentary are: Bhadrapāda is regarded as the first month of the year; ¹²³ substances used for vājīkarana purposes are divided into six types; ¹²⁴ sanıśodhana procedures are classified in a particular way; ¹²⁵ the terms prakrtisama- and vikrtivisamasamavāya are interpreted in his own way; ¹²⁶

two types of sidhma are distinguished; ¹²⁷ raktagulma is said to occur not only in women but also in men; ¹²⁸ the disease called śītalikā is mentioned for the first time in Dalhaṇa's commentary; ¹²⁹ prāṇāyāma is explained as being of three types, recaka, pūraka and kumbhaka; ¹³⁰ Dalhaṇa approves of the boiling of honey in pharmaceutical preparations; ¹³¹ morphological and other characteristics of medicinal plants are described; ¹³² vernacular names, ¹³³ as well as sanskritized forms of vernacular names of plants, ¹³⁴ are given; new synonyms of plant names ¹³⁵ and modifications in pairs of plants ¹³⁶ are found; Dalhaṇa was obviously confused with regard to the identity of a number of plants. ¹³⁷ ¹³⁸

Dalhaņa and his Nibandhasaṃgraha are quoted or referred to ¹³⁹ in Gulrājśarmamiśra's commentary on the Āyurvedaprakāśa, ¹⁴⁰ Hemādri's Āyurvedarasāyana, ¹⁴¹ Kṛṣṇadatta's commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, Nārāyaṇa's additions to the Kusumāvalī on the Siddhayoga (over ninety quotations), Śivadāsasena's commentaries on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā, ¹⁴² Cakrapāṇidatta's Dravyaguṇa ¹⁴³ and the Cakradatta, ¹⁴⁴ P.V. Sharma's auto-commentaries on his Āyurvedadarśana and Dravyaguṇasūtra, Śivadatta's commentary on the Śivakoṣa, ¹⁴⁵ Ṭoḍara in the Āyurvedasaukhya, ¹⁴⁶ Vācaspati in his commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, ¹⁴⁷ Vallabhabhaṭṭa's commentary on the Jvaratriśatī, ¹⁴⁸ Yogendranātha's Āyurvijñānaratnākara, ¹⁴⁹ and Yogīndranāthasena's commentary on the Carakasamhitā. ¹⁵⁰

The *Nibandhasaṃgraha* contains the following information on its author, who was not free from conceit, since he calls himself vivekabṛhaspati. ¹⁵¹ His father, a physician, who was well versed in all the sciences, was Bharata or Bharatapāla; ¹⁵² the names of his grandfather and great-grandfather, physicians by profession, were Jayapāla and Govinda. He issued from a family of brāhmaṇas of Sauravaṃśa ¹⁵³ and lived in Aṅkolā, situated near Mathurā in a region called Bhādānaka. Þalhaṇa was associated with the court of Sahapāla or Sohala, the King of Bhādānaka. ¹⁵⁴

Ańkolā has not been identified with certainty. In the opinion of some scholars, it was situated near Bhiwani in the Rewārī tahsīl in the old state of Ālwār, while others hold it to be the modern Bayāna in the old state of Bharatpur (Rājasthān). ¹⁵⁵ Dalhaṇa's patron, king Sahapāla, is by some regarded as one of the kings of the Pāla dynasty of Bengal, ¹⁵⁶ which would make Dalhana into a Bengali author. ¹⁵⁷

A more appropriate candidate is, according to P.V. Sharma, ¹⁵⁸ Sahanapāladeva or Sohapāla, a king of the Yadu dynasty of Biyānā (identical with Bhādānaka), a region comprising the state of Bharatpur and the district of Mathurā. This king reigned in the last quarter of the twelfth century. ¹⁵⁹ Another king, called Sahajapāla, is found among the Cāhamānas of Nādol (Naddula). ¹⁶⁰

The identity of Dalhana's guru, whose name is not mentioned, cannot be ascertained, but P.V. Sharma inclines to the view that Bhāskara, the author of a Pañjikā on the Suśrutasamhitā, was this teacher, since the views expressed in the Pañjikā are never contradicted. [6]

Dalhana quotes Cakrapānidatta ¹⁶² and Śrīpati, ¹⁶³ and is quoted in his turn by Hemādri, which establishes that he lived in the twelfth century, probably in the latter half or last

quarter, if P.V. Sharma is right with regard to the identity of his royal patron. 164-165

GADĀDHARA ¹⁶⁶ was a commentator on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, as clearly indicated in the Madhukośa, ¹⁶⁷ Kusumāvalī, ¹⁶⁸ and Ratnaprabhā. ¹⁶⁹ The larger part of the quotations from and references to him in the Madhukośa and Ratnaprabhā ¹⁷⁰ are found in comments on verses taken from the Suśrutasaṃhitā. Gadādhara's views are repeatedly contrasted with those of other commentators on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, ¹⁷¹ and he is mentioned as one of a series of commentators on that treatise. ¹⁷²

The claim that Gadādhara also wrote a commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*, and, probably, as well on one of Vāgbhaṭa's works, ¹⁷³ is not based on solid evidence. The references to Gadādhara in passages of the *Madhukośa* pertaining to verses of the *Mādhavanidāna* borrowed from Caraka or Vāgbhaṭa ¹⁷⁴ do not warrant such a claim at all. ¹⁷⁵

The title of Gadādhara's commentary on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* is unknown. Apart from this commentary, he probably wrote a treatise called *Vaidyaprasāraka*.

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Gadādhara are: Āḍhamalla, ¹⁷⁶ the commentary on the *Āyurvedābdhisāra*, ¹⁷⁷ Bhāvamiśra, ¹⁷⁸ the *Bṛhannighaṇṭuratnā-kara*, ¹⁷⁹ Gopāladāsa's *Cikitsāmṛta*, Gulrājśarmamiśra's *Viśikhānupraveśavijñāna*, Meghadeva's commentary on the *Mādhavadravyaguṇa*, Nāganātha's *Nidānapradīpa*, Niścalakara, ¹⁸⁰ Śivadāsasena, ¹⁸¹ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta in *Vyākhyāmadhukośa* ¹⁸² and *Vyākhyākusumāvalī*, ¹⁸³ Ṭoḍara, ¹⁸⁴ Vācaspati, ¹⁸⁵ and Vijayarakṣita. ¹⁸⁶

All these quotations are in prose, with one exception. 187

Remarkable is the absence of quotations from Gadādhara in the commentaries of Cakrapāṇidatta, Dalhana and Gayadāsa.

Some quotations, ascribed to Gadādhara by Vijayarakṣita, are attributed to Gayadāsa by Vācaspati; 188 the reverse situation is also found. 189

The *Vaidyaprasāraka* ¹⁹⁰ is, once only, associated with Gadādhara in Niścalakara's *Ratnaprabhā*. ¹⁹¹ Corroborative evidence is not available. ¹⁹² Quotations from Gadādhara, elsewhere said to derive from the *Vaidyaprasāraka*, are absent.

The Vaidyaprasāraka is quoted or referred to by Āḍhamalla, ¹⁹³ Gopāladāsa, ¹⁹⁴ Niścalakara, ¹⁹⁵ Śivadāsasena. ¹⁹⁶ and Śrīkanthadatta. ¹⁹⁷

The quotations from this work show that it was a therapeutic treatise, partly in verse, ¹⁹⁸ partly in prose, which contained recipes, along with instructions regarding their preparation. ¹⁹⁹ The identity of medicinal substances mentioned in its prescriptions was occasionally explained. ²⁰⁰

Some recipes of the *Vaidyaprasāraka* may have been borrowed from Caraka, ²⁰¹ Suśruta, ²⁰² and Vāgbhaṭa. ²⁰³ Some are, as indicated by Niścala, from other works (tantrāntara). ²⁰⁴ Some again differ from other versions ²⁰⁵ or agree with recipes found, for example, in Candraṭa's *Yogaratnasamuccaya*. ²⁰⁶

The *Vaidyaprasāraka* was held in esteem, as appears from remarks by Āḍhamalla, Śivadāsasena, ²⁰⁷ and Śrīkanthadatta. ²⁰⁸

A more definite answer on the nature and contents of the *Vaidyaprasāraka* might be obtained by a study of the *Bṛhadvaidyaprasāraka*, an anonymous treatise which has been preserved. ²⁰⁹

The references to Gadādhara's views show that he sometimes preferred particular readings of the *Suśrutasanhitā* which differ from those found in the most current edition of that treatise and in the *Mādhavanidāna*. ²¹⁰ The quotations mention some opinions of Gadādhara on grammar, ²¹¹ pathology and nosology, ²¹² and synonyms of a medicinal plant described by him. ²¹³

Vijayaraksita sometimes disagrees with Gadādhara.²¹⁴ The interpretations of Gadādhara are repeatedly opposed to those of Kārttikakunda, ²¹⁵ and once to those of Vāpyacandra.²¹⁶ Gadādhara and Videha, however, are said to hold similar opinions on particular points.²¹⁷ The same applies to Gadādhara and Jejjata, ²¹⁸ Gadādhara and Cakra.²¹⁹

D.Ch. Bhattacharyya regarded Gadādhara as a physician who belonged to the Dāsa family of Vaidyas of Bengal on the basis of a remark of Niścalakara, who calls him once Gadādharadāsa. ²²⁰ The same passage refers to him as an antaraṅga, which would mean that he was the court physician of some king or at least belonged to the inner circle of some royal court. That Gadādhara belonged to Bengal is confirmed by his use of Bengali vernacular terms. ²²¹

An important indication with regard to Gadādhara's date is provided by Niścalakara who says that he preceded Cakrapāṇidatta. ²²² If a list of commentators found in the *Madhukośa* ²²³ is put in a chronological order, he lived later than Jejjata, and before Vāpyacandra. ²²⁴

The introductory verses of the *Madhukośa* mention him after Bhaṭṭāra(haricandra) and Jejjaṭa, while Vāpyacandra and Cakrapāṇi follow him. A particular list of authors, given by Niścala, may also present them chronologically; this list ²²⁵ places Gadādhara after Vāgbhaṭa, Kapilabala, Ravigupta and Īśvarasena, and before Govardhana, Cakradatta and Bakulakara. Niścalakara mentions Gadādhara usually after Jejjaṭa and before Cakra, ²²⁶

The information collected points to Gadādhara as an author who lived later than Jejjaṭa and earlier than Cakrapāṇidatta, probably earlier than Vāpyacandra and Īśvarasena, which means that he may be assigned to the eighth or, at the latest, the ninth century. ²²⁷ Stanzas ascribed to a Vaidya Gadādhara, different from the commentator, are quoted in Śrīdharadāsa's *Saduktikarṇāmṛta*, composed in A.D. 1205/1206. ²²⁸ Another Gadādhara, not to be confused with the commentator or the poet, was the father of Vaṅgasena. ²²⁹

GAYADĀSA ²³⁰ was the author of a commentary (pañjikā), ²³¹ called *Nyāyacandrikā*, on the *Suśrutasaṃḥitā*. The numerous quotations from this work, in particular those found in Dalhaṇa's *Nibandhasaṃgraha*, prove that it covered the whole of Suśruta's treatise. In spite of the great fame of the *Nyāyacandrikā*, it has only partially been preserved. The part dealing with the Nidānasthāna is known in one manuscript²³² and has been edited.²³³ The commentary on the Śārīrasthāna, also preserved in a single manuscript, ²³⁴ remains unedited.

Some authors assume that Gayadāsa also wrote a commentary on the Carakasaṇ-hitā, 235 which is not impossible at all, since a quotation in Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā may derive from it. 236

The collection of quotations from Gayadāsa's commentary on the Suśrutasaṇṇhitā poses a number of problems. The author himself is referred to under two names, Gayadāsa and Gayin. The assumption that two different commentators are at issue²³⁷ is unfounded, since one and the same citation is attributed to both Gayadāsa and Gayin. ²³⁸ Palhaṇa, who mentions the Nyāyacandrikā only once by name, ²³⁹ refers to the author as Gayadāsa and Gayin. Problematic are his references to commentaries called Bṛhat-, ²⁴⁰ Mahā-, ²⁴¹ and Laghupañjikā, ²⁴² a Pañjikā, ²⁴³ an author called Pañji-kākara, ²⁴⁴ and two authors called the two Pañjikākāras. ²⁴⁵ The Bṛhat- or Mahāpañjikā is usually regarded as Gayadāsa's commentary ²⁴⁶ and the Laghupañjikā as Bhāskara's commentary on the Suśrutasaṇṇhitā. ²⁴⁷ Certainty on this point cannot be reached since the views ascribed to the author of the Bṛhat- or Mahāpañjika by Palhaṇa are not found again as opinions of Gayadāsa in other commentaries. The Pañjikākāra of the Nibandhasaṃgraha is the same as Gayadāsa because the contents of a reference to him agree with a statement by Gayadāsa himself. ²⁴⁸

The quotations from a commentary called $Candrik\bar{a}$ and its author are partly from the $Ny\bar{a}yacandrik\bar{a}$. ²⁴⁹

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Gayadāsa or Gayin are: Āḍhama-lla, ²⁵⁰ the Āyurvedābdhisāra, Bhāvamiśra, ²⁵¹ Þalhaṇa, ²⁵² Gopāladāsa in his Cikitsāmīṭa, Hazārīlāl Sukul's commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, Meghadeva in his commentary on the Mādhavadravyaguṇa, ²⁵³ Nāganātha in his Nidānapradīpa, Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana, Narasiṃha in his commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, Ni-ścalakara, ²⁵⁴ Śivadāsasena, ²⁵⁵ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ²⁵⁶ Vācaspati, ²⁵⁷ and Vijayarakṣita. ²⁵⁸

A Pañ jikākāra is quoted in the Kusumāvalī. 259

Gayadāsa himself quotes or refers to the following authorities and works in his commentary on the Nidānasthāna of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*: Bhāluki (2.7; 5.17; 14.3 and 8cd–9ab), Bhoja (2.7; 3.7; 5.3, 4, 8, 16, 17; 6.15–19, 20ab, 25; 7.11–14ab; 8.10; 9. 10cd–11ab, 13cd–14ab, 27cd–28ab, 34cd–38; 10.7 and 18; 11.3, 8–9, 10–12, 19–20, 21, 29; 12.6 and 9; 13.4, 6, 9–10, 12, 14, 18, 25cd–28ab, 30–31, 33–34, 41, 42, 47–50ab, 50cd–52ab, 52cd–54, 57–58, 61; 16.3, 5–12, 14–26, 27–35, 40–45, 46, 47–50, 57), Caraka (often), Dṛḍhabala (1.52–58), Hārīta (1.75), Jejjata or Jaḍa (4.5; 5.8 and 16; 6.15–19 and 20ab; 7.24), *Kāśyapīya* (8.10), munayaḥ (6.24), Nāgārjuna (3.12), *Nāgārjunīya* (8.4), Nandin (6.15–19), pūrvavyākhyātāraḥ (13.24cd–25ab), śabdikāḥ (1.4cd–15), *Śālākya* (1.84), *śruti* (1.13–14ab), suśrutādhyāyinaḥ (12.9), Svāmidāsa (6.15–19), Vaitaraṇa (13.41), Vātsyāyana (14.3), Videha (13.33–34 and 35), and Viśvāmitra (5.17; 7.3). Pāṇini and Vāgbhata are quoted anonymously.

According to J. Jolly, ²⁶⁰ the commentary on the Śārīrasthāna quotes or refers to Aśvavaidyaka, the Aśvins, Bhāluki, Bharadvāja, Bhoja (often), Caraka (often), Hiranyākṣa, Jada (= Jejjaṭa), Jātūkarṇa, Kāśyapa, Nārada, Suśruta, Viśvāmitra, and Vrddhakāśyapa. A.F.R. Hoernle ²⁶¹ added the following sources: Cakṣuṣya, Dhanvantari, Gotama, Kumāratantra, Manu, Puṣkalāvata, Śālākyatantra, Śalyasiddhānta, Videha and Yogaprayoga. A cursory examination of the text of the commentary on the second chapter of the Śārīrasthāna learns that the names of Bheda and Janaka were overlooked by Jolly and Hoernle.

The extant parts of the text of the Nyāyacandrikā and the quotations from it show

that Gayadāsa often read a text different from that of the most current edition (cc). These differences are often, though not always, noticed by Dalhaṇa. ²⁶² Gayadāsa was Dalhaṇa's chief authority, as appears from the numerous instances where his readings and interpretations are preferred to those of Jejjaṭa. ²⁶³ Gayadāsa is repeatedly said to disagree with Jejjaṭa or to reject his views, ²⁶⁴ but examples of cases where both are of one mind are also found. ²⁶⁵ Authorities, whose views were acceptable to Gayadāsa, are: Bhoja, ²⁶⁶ Hārīta, ²⁶⁷ Haricandra, ²⁶⁸ Kāśyapa, ²⁶⁹ Videha, ²⁷⁰ and Viśvāmitra. ²⁷¹

Śivadāsasena regarded Gayadāsa as one of the two authoritative commentators on the Suśrutasamhitā. ²⁷²

Gayadāsa's commentary and the quotations from it have not yet been the subject of detailed study. Some noteworthy features are: a divergent view on pramehapidikās, ²⁷³ bone fractures, ²⁷⁴ the number of vessels in various body parts and the vessels suitable for venesection, ²⁷⁵ the number of muscles in various body parts and the total number of muscles in females, ²⁷⁶ and the measurements of particular marmans. ²⁷⁷ Gayadāsa also had his own opinion on the identity of medicinal substances, ²⁷⁸ the way of preparing compound medicines, etc. ²⁷⁹

Gayadāsa does not give any information about himself, but P. Cordier²⁸⁰ noticed his being called an antaraṅga, i.e., a court physician, in the colophon of the MS of the Nyāyacandrikā on the Nidānasthāna.²⁸¹ Later, D.Ch. Bhattacharyya claimed²⁸² that Niścalakara calls him gaudeśvarāntaraṅgaśrīgayadāsasena, which means that he was a court physician to a king of Bengal; the ending -dāsa of his name would indicate that he belonged to the Dāsa lineage of Bengali Vaidyas. The edition of Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā refers to Gayadāsa as an antaraṅga or gauḍāntaraṅga,²⁸³ and calls him (vaidyaśrī)Gayadāsa.²⁸⁴

For a long time it has been difficult to reach some degree of precision with regard to Gayadāsa's date. J. Jolly²⁸⁵ only remarked that he must be earlier than Dalhaṇa who quotes him. A.F.R. Hoemle²⁸⁶ regarded him as not later than the eleventh century and supposed Gayadāsa and Cakrapāṇidatta to be contemporaries. P.V. Sharma also regards Gayadāsa and Cakrapāṇidatta as belonging to the same period. ²⁸⁷ G. Hāldār assigned Gayadāsa to the tenth ²⁸⁸ or tenth-eleventh century, ²⁸⁹ and was of the opinion that he is earlier than Cakrapāṇidatta. ²⁹⁰

The limits of Gayadāsa's chronological position are provided on the one hand by Jejjata, quoted by him, and on the other by Vijayarakṣita and Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, who quote Gayadāsa. D.Ch. Bhattacharyya's contention ²⁹¹ that Gayadāsa is cited in Cakrapāṇidatta's Āyurvedadīpikā is not convincing, being based on a reference to the author of a Candrikā on the Suśrutasaṇihitā, ²⁹² which need not be Gayadāsa's Nyāyacandrikā in this case.

More light on Gayadāsa's date is shed by the chronology of Brahmadeva, who is later than Gayadāsa and anterior to Cakrapāṇidatta. This leads to the conclusion that Gayadāsa lived in the period between Jejjaṭa and Brahmadeva, ²⁹³ which implies that he is earlier than Cakrapāṇi.

Niścalakara once mentions Gavadāsa between Īśāna and Cakra, which may mean

that he is regarded as later than Isana and earlier than Cakrapanidatta. 294

D.Ch. Bhattacharyya's date of Gayadāsa, about A.D. 1000, is within this range, which means that this author's choice of Mahīpāla I (A.D. 988–1038)²⁹⁵ as Gayadāsa's patron is not unacceptable,²⁹⁶ although only one of a series of possibilities.²⁹⁷

GOMIN²⁹⁸ was a commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, as shown by a reference to him in the *Kusumāvalī*, ²⁹⁹ where Gomin is said to have rejected a particular interpretation, advanced by others, of a passage of the chapter on kṣārapāka of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*. The *Kusumāvalī* calls him a commentator (tīkākṛt). G.N. Mukherjee identified him with the Buddhist author Candragomin, ³⁰⁰ which is a rather improbable supposition. ³⁰¹

GOVARDHANA is mentioned among a series of commentators on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* by P. Cordier³⁰² and S. Dasgupta.³⁰³

The GŪDHAPADABHANGAŢIPPANA ³⁰⁴ was probably a collection of short comments on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*. The work is quoted by Dalhaṇa ³⁰⁵ and Śrīkaṇṭhadatta. ³⁰⁶ The former rejects one of the interpretations of its author on the authority of Jejjaṭa. ³⁰⁷ P.V. Sharma assumes that the work belongs to the eleventh century. ³⁰⁸

HĀRĀŅACANDRA wrote a modern Sanskrit commentary, called Suśrutārthasamdīpana, on the Suśrutasamhitā. 309

Sources quoted or referred to are: Āgama (Sū.10.4; 24.8; 40.10), Āgneya (U.4.3-8ab), 310 Ajaya (Sū.2.4; 16.10; Ni.10.10-12; Sā.4.57-61), 311 Amara (often), 312 Amaramālā (Sū.1.22), 313 Amaratīkā (Sū.44.46-49ab), 314 Ānandagirikrtā vyākbyā (Sū. 6.4), 315 Ātreya (often), Aupadhenava (Sū.4.9), Bādarāyana (Śā.1.11-14; 3.4), 316 Bālukītantra (Sū.6.5), 317 Bhagavadgītā (U.37.3-9 and 11-22), Bhāskarācārya's Siddhāntaśiromani (Sū.6.5), Bhāsyakāra (Śā.9.11), 318 Bhatti (Sū.13.9; Ka.1.75ab), 319 Bhoja (Sū.6.5; 8.3–4, five quotations; 11.11; 19.30–32; 21.9; 27.12–14; Ni.13.6 and 14; 16.40--45), Bhujabalabhīma (Sū.29.42-45), 320 Brahmasūtrabhāsya (Sū.40.14), 321 Brahmavidyābharanakāra (Śā,1.15-16),³²² Brhadāranyaka (Sū.6.4), Brhatsamhitā (Ka.1.8-18ab), Cakrapānisamgraha (Sū.46.294-297), Devīpurāna (Sū.24.6), Dharani $(S\bar{u}.3.55-56; 17.15; 26.8-10)$, 323 Dīdhitikāra $(S\bar{u}.16.10)$, 324 Dīpikā $(S\bar{u}.29.34-41)$, Drdhabala (Sū.43.8-11), Durgasimha (Sū.16.10), 325 Garga (Sū.16.3-4), Gobhila (Sū.35.17cd-18ab), Gobhilasūtra (Sū.5.18), 326 Gotama (Sū.1.32-34; 2.6; 26.5-7; Śā.1.7), Halāyudha (Ni.6.26), 327 Hārāvalī (Sū.44.31-34), 328 Hemacandra (Sū.18.18; 30.21-23; 42.5-7; 45.3; 46.3 and 351; \$\bar{a}\$.6.28-34ab), Hrasva (\$\bar{u}\$.1.1-2; 44.14-16; 46.36), Jaimini (Sū.1.1-2 and 34; 2.3; Ni.6.5-8; U.23.8-12),³²⁹ Jalpakalpataru (Sū.6.21-38), ³³⁰ jyotihśāstra (Sū.32.4-7), jyotisa (Sū.29.34-41; 32.4-7), Jyotistattva (Sū.32.4-7), 331 kālacakravādinah (Sū.6.9), Kalāpacandra (Sū.44.31-34; 46.340-344), kālāpāh (Ka.3.6-17), 332 Kālidāsa (U.22.12), kāmaśāstra (Ni.14.1), kāpilāh (Śā.1.5), Kāśikā (Sū.30.8-12; Śā.6.24), Kāśyapīya (Sū.6.6-7 and 9), Kātyāyana (Sū.2.4-5 and 10; 30.1; U.38.31-32), Kāvyaprakāśa (Sū.10.5), 333 Kosa (Sū.26.1-3; 35.1; 38.1), Kosakāra (Sū.18.17), Koṣāntara (ten quotations), Kullūka (Sū.1.28-29), 334 Kusumāñ jali (Śā.1.11-14), 335 Mādhava (Sū.14.18), 336 māgadhāh (Sū.44.82), Māgha (Sū.30.14cd-20), Māghatīkā (Sū.3.18-26),³³⁷ Mahābhārata (Sū.6.19; 24.7; 29.34-41; 31.3-4 and 17-24; 32.4, twice; U.4.2-8ab, three quotations), Mallinatha (Sū.3.18-26), Manu (often), Mārkandeyapurāna (Sū.1.22; 19.20-29), Mathurānātha (Sū.37.19-22), Matsyapurāna (Sū.29.27-33), Medinī (very often), Meghadūta (Ni.2. 10-12), Muktāvalī (Ka.1.28-45), Naisadha (Sū.16.10; Ni.2.17-18), Naisadhakāvya (Sū.46.281–289),³³⁸ naiyāyikāh (Sū.42.3), *Nyāyakandalī* (Sū.45.3–4), ³³⁹ *Nyāyasūtra* (Sū.16.10), Pānini (rather often), Parāśara (Sū.28.6-7), Pātañjalasūtra (Sū.28.6-7; 46.2; Śā.1.10), Prāñca (Sū.16, additional verses between 26 and 27; Ka.1.3-7), Praśastabhāsya (Sū.45.3-4), Purāna (Śā.3.19-29), Rabhasa (Sū.10.9), 340 Raghu (Sū.24.5; U.18.27-30), Raghunandana (Sū.1.1-2), 341 Raghunātha's Amaratīkā (Sū.46.211-220), 342 Rājanirghanta (Sū.27.12-14; 31.25-32; 44.9-13; Śā.5.10; 10.6-8), Ratnāvalī (Ni.9.4-11ab), Rudra (Sū.28.11-21; Ni.14.3; Ka.5.1; U.37.10-22), 343 Śabarasvāmin (Sū.1.39), 344 Śabdaratnāvalī (Sū.37.19-22), Śabdaśaktiprakāśikā (Sū.1.22), 345 Śamkara (Sū.1.22, twice), Śamkarabhāsya (Sū.6.4; U.37.3-9), Śamkarācārya (Sū.40.13; 43.3). Sāmkhyabhāsyakāra (Śā.1.10), 346 Sāmkhyācārya and -ācāryāḥ (Śā.1.4 and 11-14), sāmkhyāh (Sū.21.28; 44.31-34; Ni. 1.3-9; Śā. 1.3, 4, 10; U.22.11-18ab), Sāmkhyakārikā (Sū.24.8; 36.3; 40.5–8; Śā.1.3), Sāmkhyapravacanabhāsya (Śā.1.4),³⁴⁷ Sāmkhyasūtra (Śā.1.3), Śańkhalikhita (Sū.2.1),³⁴⁸ Śārīrakabhāsya (Sū.1.1-2; 20.17; Śā.1.15-16), 349 Śārī rakasūtra (Śā.1.15-16), 350 Śārī rakasūtrabhās ya (Śā.9.3), Śiromani (Sū.40.4).³⁵¹ smrti (often), Śrīhatta (Sū.46.298).³⁵² Śrīpati (Sū.46.396cd–400ab). śruti (several times), sūdaśāstra (Sū.46.353cd-356ab), Sūryasiddhānta (Sū.6.6-7, twice; 21.12-13; 32.4-6), tantrāntara (very often), tarkavidyāvidvāmsah (Sū.45.3), Trikānda (Sū.23.9-12; 45.7-8), 353 Trikāndasesa (Sū.5.18), Vācaspati (Sū.40.4), Vācaspatimiśra (Sū.21.12-13; 36.3; 40.5-9; Śā.1.4, three quotations; 1.5; 1.10, twice), Vāgbhata (often), vaišesikāh (Śā.1.15-16), vaiyākaranāh (U.17.61cd-70), Vāmana (Sū.29.27-33), Vāmanapurāna (U.37.3-9), vārendrāh (Sū.46.21), Vasistha (Sū.45.4), Vāyuprokta (Sū.29.27-33),³⁵⁴ Veda (Sū.40.4), Vedānta (Sū.24.7; 36.4-5; 40.3; 41.3), Vedāntasūtra (Sū.14.18), Višākhadatta (Ka.1.3-7), 355 Visnu (Sū.2.1), Visnupurāna (Sū.1.3-5 and 6-7; 6.3 and 5; 34.7cd-9ab; 46.3; Śā.1.4) Viśva (Sū.1.5.5), 356 Vopadeva (Sū.22.11), Vopālita (Sū.28.8-10),³⁵⁷ and Yājñavalkya (Śā.5.18-19).

Some sources, especially Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī and the Dhātupāṭha, are repeatedly quoted anonymously.

The influence of Western medicine, especially its anatomy, is clearly discernible in the commentary on the Śārīrasthāna. Vernacular names of medicinal substances are often added to the Sanskrit synonyms.

Hārāṇacandra issued from a family of brāhmaṇas. He was born in a village called Bakliyā in the Pavnā district of Bengal in 1849. His father, Ānandacandra, a physician and pupil of the famous Gaṅgādhara, practised in Rājśāhī. Hārāṇacandra followed his father's example and studied āyurveda with Gaṅgādhara. He was interested in western medicine, especially anatomy, and performed dissections in order to increase his knowledge. He became a successful practitioner, especially known for his skill in the treatment of eye diseases. His daily life was that of a traditional Hindu. Hārāṇacandra was a generous person who often treated his patients without asking a fee. He died in 1935. ³⁵⁸

JEJI AȚA ³⁵⁹ commented on both Caraka- and Susrutasamhitā. His commentary on the latter treatise has partly been preserved, ³⁶⁰ but its title is unknown. Numerous quotations from it, about 160 in number, are found in Dalhaṇa's Nibandhasamgraha. The remarks of Dalhaṇa show that the text of the Susrutasaṃhitā, as read by Jejjaṭa, considerably differed from the text accepted by Gayadāsa. The latter rejected Jejjaṭa's readings in the majority of the cases recorded by Dalhaṇa; readings acceptable to both of them are less frequently attested. ³⁶¹ Dalhaṇa's attitude toward these two predecessors varies; he sides with Gayadāsa against Jejjaṭa or he remains neutral; the instances where he prefers Jejjaṭa's opinion to that of Gayadāsa are very few. ³⁶²

Jejjaṭa's commentary on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* is also quoted by Gayadāsa, ³⁶³ who calls him Jejjada or Jada.

Niścala's *Ratnaprabhā* on the *Cakradatta* contains a large number of quotations from Jejjaṭa. A considerable number among these are from the commentary on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*. ³⁶⁴ Kārttika(kuṇḍa) is said to agree with Jejjaṭa in a number of instances. ³⁶⁵

Remarkable is the absence of quotations from Jejjața in Cakrapāṇidatta's Bhānumatī on the Sūtrasthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā.

Candrața, on the other hand, held Jejjața's commentary in high esteem and consulted it when he wrote the Suśrutapāthaśuddhi. 366

Quotations from Jejjata in other works may be either from his commentary on the Caraka- or from that on the Suśrutasamhitā.

KĀRTTIKAKUŅŅA ³⁶⁷ was a well known and respected commentator on the *Suśruta-samhitā*.

Authors and works quoting from or referring to him are. ³⁶⁸ Āḍhamalla, ³⁶⁹ the commentary on the Āyurvedābdhisāra, ³⁷⁰ Bhāvamiśra, ³⁷¹ Cakrapāṇidatta, ³⁷² Dalhaṇa, ³⁷³ Nāganātha in his *Nidānapradīpa*, Narahari in his *Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana*, Niścalakara, ³⁷⁴ Śivadāsasena, ³⁷⁵ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ³⁷⁶ Vācaspati, ³⁷⁷ and Vijayarakṣita. ³⁷⁸

The quotations and references show that Kārttikakuṇḍa was a commentator with an independent mind and many views of his own, in particular with regard to the text of the Suśrutasaṃhitā. ³⁷⁹ Two of his authorities were Videha ³⁸⁰ and Vṛddhakā-śyapa. ³⁸¹ He agrees on a number of points with Jejjaṭa. ³⁸² Gadādhara is an author he more than once disagrees with. ³⁸³ Although Kārttika was obviously an important commentator, ³⁸⁴ later writers repeatedly reject his interpretations. ³⁸⁵ Some remarks in Dalhana's Nibandhasaṃgraha indicate that Kārttika's work was elaborate and detailed. ³⁸⁶

The assertion that he also wrote commentaries on the Carakasamhitā and Astangahrdayasamhitā is unfounded. 387 Kārttikakunda, often shortly called Kārttika 388 or Kunda, may, on account of his name ending in kunda, have belonged to a Bengal family of Vaidyas. 389

Hoernle's suggestion that Kārttikuṇḍa is identical with Bhāskara, the author of a Pañ jikā on the Suśrutasaṇḥitā, has to be rejected since it is based on the assumption that Bhāskara is not quoted by Dalhana. 390 The terminus ante quem of Kārttikakuṇḍa is provided by the Kusumāvalī³⁹¹ and Niścala's Ratnaprabhā, ³⁹² which declarehim to be anterior to Vṛṇḍa(kuṇḍa). A remark by Śivadāsasena ³⁹³ may well mean that he is earlier than Gayadāsa. Kārttikakuṇḍa's name also appears in a series of commentators on the Suśrutasamhitā, mentioned in the Madhukośa. ³⁹⁴ If this series, consisting of Jejjata, Vāpyacandra, Mādhavakara and Kārttikakuṇḍa, is in chronological order, he is later than the commentator Mādhava. Some statements found in Śrikaṇṭhadatta's part of the Madhukośa ³⁹⁵ seem to indicate that Gadādhara preceded him. These data, taken together, point to the eighth or, more probably, the ninth century as the period of Kārttikakuṇḍa's activity. ³⁹⁶

The LAKṢMAṇAṬIPPAṇA, ³⁹⁷ quoted by Dalhaṇa ³⁹⁸ and Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ³⁹⁹ must have been a collection of glosses on the *Suśrutasaṇhitā*. ⁴⁰⁰ Nothing more definite can be said about its date. ⁴⁰¹

Mādhava's glosses on the Suśrutasaṃhitā are referred to as Praśna(sahasra)vidhāna or Suśrutaślokavārttika. He may also have written a commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā that differs from these glosses. Dalhaṇa says in the introduction to his Nibandhasaṇgraha that he made use of the tippaṇas of Mādhava and Brahmadeva in composing his own work. 402 Mādhava is once quoted by him. 403

MAHĀDEVA is the reputed author of a Suśrutaţīkā. 404

NĀGADEVA was a commentator on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, as appears from a reference to him in Niścala's Ratnaprabhā. 405 P.V. Sharma regards Nāgadeva as a commentator on the Carakasaṃhitā and as the author of the Nāgabhartṛtantra; he assigns him to the twelfth century. 406

NANDIN was an early commentator on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, 407 as is shown by Dalhaṇa's references to him. Nandin was averse to the inclusion of the diseases gardabhikā, irivellikā, gandhapiḍikā and nīlikā in the list of the kṣudrarogas. 408 He refrained from giving information on the insects and other invertebrates enumerated in the Suśrutasaṃhitā 409 In both cases he is mentioned together with Suvīra and Varāha. Both references relate to Nandin's commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā, since a list of kṣudrarogas and an enumeration of harmful small animals are absent from the Carakasaṃhitā. Cakrapāṇidatta mentions him also, together with Varāha, as a commentator on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. 410 Gayadāsa's Nyāyacandrikā proves that Nandin also commented on the Carakasaṃhitā. 411 Gayadāsa mentions him as such, along with Svāmidāsa and Jada.

Nandin obviously belonged, together with Suvīra and Varāha, to a group of early commentators who preceded Jejjata and Gayadāsa. He is sometimes placed in the eleventh century, 412 but must be earlier, since Jejjata belongs to the seventh or eighth century.

Authorities called Nandin are also known from texts on nādī- and rasaśāstra. 413

PURUSOTTAMASŪRI is recorded as the author of a commentary (vyākhyā) on the Su-sinitas amhitā.

RĀMADEVA ⁴¹⁵ is quoted as a commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* by Niścalakara, ⁴¹⁶ who remarks that Rāmadeva and Jejjaṭa agree on the correct reading of a particular verse of Suśruta. ⁴¹⁷ Rāmadeva is therefore earlier than Niścala. The reference to him in the company of Jejjaṭa may imply that he is of about the same period. Some regard him, without adducing arguments, as belonging to the twelfth century. ⁴¹⁸

SOMA was a commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* according to P. Cordier⁴¹⁹ and S. Dasgupta. ⁴²⁰ This view is corroborated by the quotations from the *Somaṭippaṇa* in the *Kusumāvalī* on the *Siddhayoga*. ⁴²¹

SUDHĪRA ⁴²² is a commentator who is quoted or referred to by Candrata, ⁴²³ Dalhana, ⁴²⁴ Niścalakara, ⁴²⁵ and Vijayaraksita. ⁴²⁶ The *Bṛhannighaṇṭuratnākara* mentions him as one of a series of commentators. ⁴²⁷

Candrața refers to him as a commentator of the same rank as Haricandra and Jejjața. The quotations and references by Dalhana prove that Sudhīra commented on the whole of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, the Uttaratantra included. Some assume that he also commented on the Carakasaṃhitā. ⁴²⁸ Dalhana had regard for Sudhīra's opinion and does not make a stand against him, even when Gayadāsa disagrees. Jejjaṭa's views clashed with those held by Sudhīra. On one occasion, Dalhana states that Sukīra and Sudhīra held the same view on a particular point and supported a variant reading of Kārttikakuṇḍa. Sukīra and Sudhīra are also mentioned together by Vijayaraksita.

Sudhīra may have been an early commentator, since Dalhaṇa remarks that Jejjaṭa and Gayadāsa did not accept one of his interpretations. He is earlier than Candraṭa (tenth century), who refers to him as a famous commentator. Some regard him as belonging to the ninth century, 429 others place him in the ninth or tenth century. 430 In my opinion he must be earlier, since Jejjaṭa, disagreeing with Sudhīra, is obviously posterior to him.

SUKĪRA ⁴³¹ was a commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, as appears from a reference to him found in Dalhaṇa's *Nibandhasaṃgraha*. ⁴³² Dalhaṇa mentions him together with Sudhīra and other commentators whose opinion he esteemed. Vijayarakṣita included the names of Sukīra and Sudhīra in the list of authorities found in the introductory verses of the *Madhukośa*. ⁴³³

Sukīra may have lived in the same age as Sudhīra. Some assign him to the ninth or tenth, 434 others to the eleventh 435 or twelfth century. 436

G. Hāldār regards Sukīra, quite unfoundedly, as an author who commented on the Mādhavanidāna. 437

SUVĪRA ⁴³⁸ was a commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, as is evident from Dalhaṇa's references to him. Dalhaṇa says that information on the insects and other invertebrates mentioned by name in the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* should be collected in the countries where

these animals are found, since commentators like Suvīra, Nandin, Vārāha, Jejjaṭa and Gayadāsa are silent on this subject. 439 The four diseases called gardabhīka, irivellikā, gandhapiḍikā and nīlikā do not belong to the group of kṣudrarogas according to Suvīra, Nandin, Vārāha and others, as stated by Dalhaṇa. 440 On a third occasion he refers to a particular classification of the types of lekhana, shared by Suvīra, Jejjaṭa and Brahmadeva. 441

Niścalakara remarks that a particular detailed explanation by Suvīra and Jejjaṭa is not accepted by the Candrikākāra. 442

The evidence available indicates that Suvīra, together with Nandin and Varāha, belongs to a group of early commentators on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. Dalhaṇa's and Niścalakara's references show that he is anterior to Jejjaṭa, Brahmadeva and Gayadāsa. Those regarding the Candrikākāra mentioned by Niścalakara as identical with Gayadāsa assign Suvīra to the tenth 443 or eleventh century. 444

UBHALTA, a resident of Kaśmīr, is mentioned as the author of a commentary on the *Suśrutasamhitā* by G. Mukhopadhyaya. 445 This Ubhalta is undoubtedly the same as Ubhatta, an inhabitant of Kaśmīr, regarded as a commentator of the twelfth or thirteenth century on the *Suśrutasamhitā* by H.H. Wilson 446 and T.A. Wise. 447 P. Cordier considered this Ubhatta to be the same as Vāgbhata, who passed for a commentator or epitomizer of Suśruta. 448

The reference to Kaśmīr as Ubhatta's country of residence is due to his, erroneous, identification with Udbhaṭa or Bhaṭṭodbhaṭa, who was the sabhāpati of king Jayāpīḍa of Kaśmīr (779–813). 449

UPASKĀRA. A work of this title, 450 quoted by Dalhaṇa, 451 may be a commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. An authority on surgery, referred to as Upaskāra, is cited in the Kusumāvalī. 452

VANGADATTA, ⁴⁵³ an authority quoted by Dalhaṇa, ⁴⁵⁴ may have been a commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*. His interpretation of a particular recipe differs from those given by Jejjaṭa and Gayadāsa. P.V. Sharma ⁴⁵⁵ places him in the eleventh century, although his date is quite uncertain.

G. Hāldār regards Vangasena, the author of the Cikitsāsārasaṃgraha, who is often referred to as Vangadatta, as a commentator on the Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā. 456

VĀPYACANDRA may have written a commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. 457

VARĀHA or VĀRĀHA ⁴⁵⁸ was an early commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, as indicated by Palhaṇa. ⁴⁵⁹ Varāha rejected the four diseases called gardabhikā, irivellikā, gandhapiḍakā and nīlikā as members of the group of kṣudrarogas and did not give additional information on a series of harmful insects and other small animals mentioned by Suśruta. Palhaṇa refers to him together with Suvīra and Nandin.

Calerapāṇidatta mentions him also, together with Nandin, as a commentator on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. 460 Varāha is sometimes said to belong to the eleventh century, 461 but

must be earlier since he preceded Jejjata. 462

A medical samhitā by Vārāha is mentioned in the *Brhannighanturatnākara*. ⁴⁶³ A hippiatric treatise, called *Śālihotra*, by an author Varāha, is also recorded. ⁴⁶⁴

VIPRACANDĀCĀRYA is occasionally mentioned as a commentator on the *Suśrutasaṃ-hitā*, ⁴⁶⁵ which may be based on a confusion with Vāpyacandra.

ANONYMOUS COMMENTARIES are recorded in the MSS catalogues. 466

Part 3 Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā

Chapter 1 Sütrasthāna¹

The Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā opens with a maṅgala addressed to the Apūrvavaidya, who destroyed all the diseases, consisting of passion (rāga), etc., which give rise to desire (autsukya), delusion (moha) and distress (arati) (1.1).

Chapter one $(\bar{a}yusk\bar{a}m\bar{i}ya)^2$ begins with the transmission of $\bar{a}yurveda$: Brahmā gave the science to Prajāpati, who gave it to the Aśvins; the Aśvins transmitted it to Sahasrākṣa (= Indra), who taught it to the son of Atri and other sages; these sages instructed Agniveśa and others, who composed treatises on the subject (1.3-4ab). The Astāngahrdaya is said to be based on the essence of these treatises (1.4cd-5ab).

The subjects of chapter one are: the eight divisions of ayurveda: kaya, bala,4 graha.⁵ ūrdhyānga.⁶ śalya, damstrā.⁷ jarā.⁸ and vrsa⁹ (1.5cd-6ab): ¹⁰ the three dosas (1.6cd-7ab); the main seats of the dosas (1.7cd); the stages of life, periods of day and night, and stages of the digestive process in which one of the dosas is predominantly active (1.8ab); the four types of digestive fire (1.8cd); the krūra, mrdu and madhya types of kostha (1.9ab); the constitutions (prakrti) (1.9cd-10); the normal qualities of vata (1.11ab), 11 pitta (1.11cd) 12 and kapha (1.12ab); 13 combinations of two dosas (samsarga) and three dosas (samnipāta) (1.12cd); the seven bodily elements (dhātu), also called dūsyas (1.13ab); urine, faeces and sweat are called mala (1.13cd); similar (samāna) substances, etc., cause increase (vrddhi) (of dosas, dhātus and malas), dissimilar ones decrease (1.14ab); the six tastes and their actions on the dosas (1.14cd-16ab); 14 the three types of substances: samana (alleviating). kopana (aggravating) and svasthahita (maintaining health) (1.16cd); the two types of vīrya; usna and sīta (1.17ab); 15 the three types of vipāka; svādu, amla and katuka (1.17cd); 16 the twenty qualities (guna), which consist of guru, manda, hima, snigdha, ślaksna, sandra, mrdu, sthira, sūksma, and viśada, along with their opposites (1.18); 17 diseases are essentially caused by defective, improper and excessive contact (yoga) with time, the objects of the senses, and activities; proper contact is the main cause of health (1.19); ¹⁸ disease is equivalent to imbalance of the dosas, health to their balance (1.20ab); diseases are either endogenous (nija) or exogenous (\(\bar{a}\)gantu) (1.20cd); the basic seats of disease are body and mind (1.21ab); raise and tamas are the dosas affecting the mind (1.21cd); a patient should be examined by means of inspection (darśana), palpation (sparśana) and interrogation (praśna) (1.22ab); nidāna (aetiology), prāgrūpa (prodromes), laksana (symptomatology), upašaya (diagnosis ex iuvantibus) and āpti (= samprāpti; pathogenesis) are the means of examining a disease (1.22cd); deśa is of two kinds: bhūmideśa (the type of country) and dehadeśa (the body); ¹⁹ bhū(mi)deśa is of three types: jāngala, ānūpa and sādhāraṇa (1.23–24ab); ²⁰ the two kinds of time: divided into units, such as kṣaṇa, etc., and relating to the stages of a disease (1.24cd); ²¹ remedial measures (auṣadha) are either purificatory (śodhana) or pacificatory (śamana) (1.25ab); enemas (basti), purgatives (vireka) and emetics (vamana), as well as oil, ghee and honey, are the best remedial measures against vāta, pitta and kapha respectively (1.25cd–26ab); discrimination (dhī), constancy (dhairya) and knowledge concerning the ātman, etc., are the best remedial measures against the mental doṣas (1.26cd); the four limbs of treatment (pādacatuṣṭaya) consist of the physician, the attēndant, the drug and the patient; the four good qualities of each of the four (1.27–29); ²² diseases are curable (sādhya) or incurable (asādhya); they are also divided into easily curable (susādhya), curable with difficulty (kṛcchrasādhya), palliable (yāpya), and not amenable to treatment (anupakrama); ²³ the features of these four types (1.30–33); ²⁴ types of patients to be rejected (1.34–35ab).

The chapter ends with an enumeration of the titles of the one hundred and twenty chapters of the treatise (1.35cd-49).

Chapter two is devoted to the daily regimen (dinacaryā).²⁵

The subjects deal with are: the time to get up (2.1ab); urination and defecation (2.1cd); teeth-cleaning (dantapavana) (2.2-3); ²⁶ disorders which make teeth-cleaning contra-indicated (2.4); ²⁷ the application of a collyrium (sauvīrāñjana) (2.5-6ab), followed by an errhine (nāvana), a mouth wash (gaṇḍūṣa), the inhalation of a medicinal smoke (dhūma), and the chewing of betel (tāmbūla) (2.6cd); ²⁸ contra-indications for betel-chewing (2.7); ²⁹ massage with oil (abhyaṅga) (2.8-9ab); ³⁰ contra-indications for massage (2.9cd); physical exercise (vyāyāma) (2.10); ³¹ contra-indications for physical exercise (2.11ab); special rules (2.11cd-12ab); massage (mardana) after physical exercise (2.12cd); disorders arising from excessive physical exercise (2.13); udvartana (2.15); ³² bathing (snāna) (2.16-17); ³³ contra-indications for bathing (2.18); rules for good conduct (ācāra) (2.19-48).

Chapter three (rtucaryā) describes the seasons, physiological changes during the seasons, and seasonal regimen. ³⁴

The seasons are arranged in the following order: śiśira, vasanta, grīṣma, varṣāḥ, śarad, hima (3.1). The period covering the seven last days of a season and the seven first days of the next one is called rusandhi (3.58). 35

Chapter four (rogānutpādanīya) begins with the statement that thirteen natural urges should not be suppressed; the urges distinguished are identical with those of the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, apart from the replacement of udgāra (eructation) by kāsa (coughing) (4.1).³⁶ The symptoms caused by the suppression of each of these urges are listed and the treatment of these syndromes is described (4.2–21ab); the symptoms brought about by the suppression of the urge to eructate and the treatment to be adopted are, in spite of the absence of udgāra in the preceding list, also dealt with (4.7d–8).³⁷

Particular symptoms in persons habitually suppressing their urges should make the physician decide to reject them for treatment (4.21cd). The specific treatments of the disorders resulting from suppression have been described, but, generally, one should try to normalize the course of the provoked vāta (4.22–23). Morally condemnable urges to be controlled are enumerated (4.24).³⁸

The remaining subjects of the chapter are: the importance of purificatory (śodhana) therapies (4.25–27); the treatment of patients emaciated by purificatory measures (bheṣajakṣapita) (4.28–30); the various types of āgantu diseases: those caused by malevolent beings (bhūta), poisonous substances (viṣa), wind, ³⁹ fire, wounds (kṣata), fractures (bhaṅga), passions (rāga), hatred (dveṣa), fear (bhaya), etc. (4.31); ⁴⁰ general rules for the prevention of nija and āgantu diseases, and the cure of diseases that have already arisen (4.32–34); ⁴¹ the season in which doṣas accumulated in a particular season should be expelled by means of purificatory measures (4.35); the conduct leading to freedom from disease (4.36).

Chapter five (dravadravyavijñānīya) 42 is concerned with fluids, their properties and their actions.

The substances discussed are: kinds of water (5.1–20ab); milk (5.20cd–29ab); dadhi (5.29cd–32ab); takra and mastu (5.32cd–35ab); navanīta (5.35cd–36); ghee (5.37–40); kilāṭa (caseous milk), pīyūṣa (early beestings), kūrcikā (condensed milk), moraṇa (late beestings) (5.41);⁴³ superior and inferior types of ghee (5.42ab); the sugarcane and its products, along with yāsaśarkarā and honey (5.42cd–54); oils (5.55–61ab); other fatty substances (5.61cd–62ab); alcoholic and other fermented fluids: alcoholic fluids in general, surā, vāruṇī,⁴⁴ vaibhītakī surā, yavasurā, ariṣṭa, mārdvīka, khārjūra, śārkara, gauḍa, sīdhu, madhvāsava, śukta, śāṇḍākī, dhānyāmla, sauvīraka, tusodaka (5.62cd–81); types of urine (5.82–83).

Chapter six (annasvarūpavijñānīya) deals with articles of diet and medicinal substances, 45

The subjects are: the group called śūkadhānya, ⁴⁶ which consists of varieties of rice (6.1-1lab) and several kinds of tṛṇadhānya⁴⁷ (6.11cd-16); the group called śimbīdhānya, ⁴⁸ mainly consisting of pulses (6.17-26ab); prepared foods (kṛtānna), amongst which are described: maṇḍa, peyā, vilepī, odana, (māṇṣa)rasa, maudgarasa, kaulattharasa, tilavikṛti, piṇyākavikṛti, śuṣkaśāka, virūḍhaka, śāṇḍākīvaṭaka, raṣālā, pāṇaka, lājālɔ, pṛthuka, dhānā, saktu, piṇyāka, vesavāra (6.26cd-42); the flesh of various animals, divided into the groups called mṛga, viṣkira, pratuda, bileśaya, prasaha, mahāmṛga, apcara, and matsya; goats and sheep do not belong to any of these groups; the first three of the eight groups are collectively known as jāṇgala, the last three sā ānūpa, and the remaining two as sādhāraṇa (6.43-71); ⁴⁹ vegetables (śāka) (6.72-115ab); fruits (phala) (6.115cd-140ab); grains, vegetables and fruits to be rejected for use (6.140cd-143ab); medicinal substances (auṣadha): the group of salts, consisting of saindhava, sauvarcala, biḍa, sāmudra, audbhiḍa, kṛṣṇalavaṇa, romaka, and pāṇisūttha (6.143cd-149), caustics (kṣāra) (6.150-152ab), medicinal plants (6.152cd-166ab);

groups of medicinal substances: pañcakolaka, mahatpañcamūla, hrasvapañcamūla, madhyamapañcamūla, jīvanākhyapañcamūla, and tṛṇākhyapañcamūla (6.166cd-171).

Chapter seven (annarakṣā) deals with a variety of subjects.

The topics discussed in its first part (7.1–29ab) are: the royal physician (prāṇācārya), ⁵⁰ who should reside near the royal palace; it is his duty to protect the king from poison (7.1–2); ⁵¹ signs indicating that particular foods and drinks contain poison (7.3–10ab); ⁵² signs indicating that garlands, articles of dress and vessels contain poison (7.10cd–12ab); ⁵³ the characteristics of a poisoner (7.12cd–13ab); ⁵⁴ the detection of poison in foods by throwing them into a fire and examining the flames and the smell emitted (7.13cd–14ab); ⁵⁵ the detection of poison in foods by making various animals eat them and examining the characteristic behaviour of these animals (7.14cd–18); ⁵⁶ symptoms produced by poisoned foods when touched, when held in the mouth, after reaching the āmāšaya, after reaching the pakvāšaya; the treatment of these conditions (7.19–26); ⁵⁷ a person who has consumed poison should be submitted to purificatory treatment along the upper and lower route; he should lick powdered copper (tāmrarajas), mixed with honey, in order to purify his heart (hṛdviśodhana), ⁵⁸ and then take powdered gold (hemacūṛṇa), which makes the poison lose its adherence (7.27–29ab). ⁵⁹

The second part (7.29cd-51) is concerned with incompatible a ticles of diet (viruddhāhāra); it is linked to the preceding part by the statement that these incompatible foods are similar to poison (viṣa) and gara⁶⁰ (7.29cd). Many incompatible combinations are enumerated (7.30-45ab).⁶¹ Viruddha is defined as anything that provokes the doṣas without eliminating them (7.45cd).⁶² In general, purificatory or pacificatory treatment is recommended (7.46ab),⁶³ as well as the use of substances counteracting the provoked doṣas (7.46cd).⁶⁴ Circumstances making incompatible foods innocuous are mentioned (7.47).⁶⁵

The best method of gradually discontinuing unwholesome habits and replacing them by healthy ones is described; ⁶⁶ sudden changes would give rise to disorders (7.48–51).

The third part begins with mentioning the three supports ⁶⁷ of life, consisting of food (āhāra), sleep (śayana) and sexual activity (abrahmacarya) (7.52). ⁶⁸ Rules concerning sleep are formulated; sleeping disorders and their treatment are discussed (7.53cd–68). ⁶⁹ Finally, many rules regulating sexual behaviour are given (7.69–76).

Chapter eight (mātrāśitīya) ⁷⁰ deals with: the importance of consuming the proper quantity (mātrā) of food (8.1–2); ⁷¹ the bad effects of a deficient and excessive intake of food (8.3–4ab); ⁷² excessive intake may lead to the diseases called alasaka and visūcikā (8.4cd–6ab); the features of alasaka and visūcikā, ⁷³ (8.7cd–8ab) which explain their names; the symptoms of the vāta, pitta and kapha types of visūcikā (8.8cd–9); ⁷⁴ the characteristics of alasaka (8.10–11); ⁷⁵ the characteristics of the untreatable disease called daṇḍālasaka (8.12–13ab); ⁷⁶ the characteristics of the equally untreatable disease called āmadoṣa or āmaviṣa (8.13cd–14); ⁷⁷ the treatment of alasaka (8.15–16) and visūcikā (8.17); ⁷⁸ the general management of ajīma, which is due to āma (8.18–20ab); dis-

orders caused by ama are relieved by the three kinds of apatarpana (8.20cd-21ab); a small amount of āma requires langhana 79 (reducing measures), a moderate amount reouires langhana and pacana measures, a large amount sodhana (purificatory measures) (8.21cd-22ab); 80 in general, diseases should be managed by measures which counteract their aetiological factors (nidāna- or hetuviparyaya), 81 but, when this is unsuccessful, with measures counteracting the disease itself (vyādhiviparyaya) (8,22cd-23); 82 as an alternative, therapies which are tadarthakārin⁸³ may be adopted; when the dosas have become free from ama and the bodily fire is active again, one should employ massage with oil (abhyañjana), oleation, enemas, etc. (8.24); the three types of ajīrna (disorders of digestion): āmā jīma, vistabdhā jīrna and vidagdhā jīrna, caused by kapha, vāta and pitta respectively (8.25–26); 84 the treatment of the three types of ajīrna (8. 27); 85 the characteristics and treatment of vilambika, a type of a jirna caused by kapha and vata, which possesses all the features of ama (8.28); 86 the symptoms and treatment of rasasesā jīrna (8.29); 87 the general management of a jīrna (8.30ab); the general symptoms of a jirna (8.30cd-31ab); other causes, not yet mentioned, of āmadosa (8. 31cd-33ab); the characteristics of samaśana, adhyaśana and visamāśana, 88 improper types of enjoying food which may cause death or give rise to serious diseases (8.33cd-35ab); rules for the proper consumption of food (8.35cd-38); 89 foods to be rejected (8.39); 90 articles of diet not suitable to habitual consumption (8.40-41); those suitable to habitual consumption (8.42-44); 91 foods to be consumed at the commencement, in the middle, and at the end of a meal (8.45-46ab); 92 two quarters of the stomach (kuksi) should be filled with solid foods and one quarter with liquids, while the remaining quarter should be left empty (8.46cd-47ab); anupānas (8.47cd-52); 93 contra-indications for the use of an anupāna (8.53-54c); 94 rules to be observed after taking food and an anupāna (8.54d-55ab);⁹⁵ the proper time for taking a meal (8.55cd-ij).

Chapter nine (dravyādivi jñānīya) discusses a number of basic concepts.

Substance (dravya) is the most important concept because taste, etc., reside in it; substances consist of the five mahābhūtas and are designated after the one that is predominantly present (9.1–2). No substance possesses therefore one taste only; what is called its taste, is the taste manifestly present; the less manifest taste, or the taste perceived later on, is called the after-taste (anurasa) (9.3–4ab). The qualities (guṇa), residing in a substance, are said to reside in its taste(s), figuratively, because of their intimate connection with taste (9.4cd–5ab). The qualities and actions of substances in which one of the mahābhūtas predominates are described (9.5cd–10a). No substance found in the world is devoid of medicinal properties (9.10b–d). Substances with a predominance of wind and fire possess an upwards-moving action, while substances with a predominance of earth and water possess a downwards-moving action (9.11). Taste is a subject to be discussed later on (9.12ab). 101

Some acknowledge eight kinds of vīrya: guru, laghu, snigdha, rūkṣa, uṣṇa, hima (= śīta), tīkṣṇa, and mṛdu (9.12cd-13ab); ¹⁰² Caraka has declared that action is brought about by vīrya only, no action being possible without vīrya (9.13cd-14ab); ¹⁰³ guru, etc., are described as vīryas in agreement with the meaning of that term (anvartha), because they are the essential ones among the guṇas, possess great power, and prove

to be the chief ones in practice; moreover, their range of application is important and wide (9.14cd-15); 104 for these reasons, the term virva is not applied to rasa, etc. (9. 16); others maintain that usna and sīta are the only gunas worthy to be called vīrya, because agni and soma are the most powerful among the constituents of substances and cannot be surpassed, just as vyakta and avyakta on a cosmical scale (9.17-18ab); the actions of usna and sīta vīrya are described (9.18cd-19); the change of taste at the conclusion of the digestive process, due to the contact with the abdominal fire, is called post-digestive taste (vipāka) (9.20); 105 the sweet and saltish tastes are sweet after digestion, the acid taste remains acid, the bitter, pungent and astringent tastes are generally pungent after digestion (9.21); the effects of the post-digestive tastes are the same as those of the tastes before digestion (9.22ab); 106 some substances exert their actions through their taste, other substances through their post-digestive taste, vīrya or prabhāva (9.22cd-23ab); ¹⁰⁷ the strongest among rasa, vipāka, vīrya or prabhāva overcomes the other ones; when of equal strength, vipāka overcomes rasa, vīrva both rasa and vipāka, and prabhāva all the other ones (9.23cd-25); 108 when two substances with the same taste, etc., differ in their actions, these specific effects arise from prabhāva (9.26-27ab); ¹⁰⁹ substances called vicitrapratyayārabdha differ in their actions, though their taste, etc., are similar (9.27cd-29), 110

Chapter ten (rasabhedīya) deals with the tastes.

Its subjects are: the two mahābhūtas contributing to each of the six tastes (10.1); ¹¹¹ the characteristic features of each taste (10.2–6); the actions of each taste on the human system (10.7–22ab); ¹¹² groups of substances with a particular taste (10.22cd–32); ¹¹³ general rules concerning the properties of substances with a particular taste and exceptions to these rules (10.33–36ab); the relationships between taste and potency (vī-rya) (10.36cd–37ab); ¹¹⁴ the tastes which are rūkṣa and promote retention of faeces, urine and flatus, followed by those which are snigdha and promote elimination of the waste products (10.37cd–38ab); tastes which are heavy (guru) and those which are light (laghu) (10.38cd–39ab); ¹¹⁵ the six tastes separately and their fifty-seven combinations (10.39cd–43); ¹¹⁶ the combinations of tastes and after-tastes become innumerable when taking into consideration their proportions in a combination (10.44). ¹¹⁷

Chapter eleven (doṣādivijñānīya) deals with states of increase and decrease of bodily constituents.

The subjects are: the doṣas, elements of the body (dhātu), and waste products (mala) constitute the basic supports of the body (11.1);¹¹⁸ the normal functions of each doṣa (11.2–3),¹¹⁹ the chief function of each element of the body (11.4)¹²⁰ and of each of the three main waste products (11.5);¹²¹ the characteristic features of increase of each of the three doṣas (11.6–8ab), ¹²² each of the seven elements (11.8cd–12), ¹²³ each of the three main waste products (11.13–14ab), ¹²⁴ and the other waste products, consisting of dūṣikā, ¹²⁵ etc. (11.14cd); the characteristic features of decrease of each doṣa (11.15–16), ¹²⁶ element (11.17–20) ¹²⁷ and waste product (11.21–23);¹²⁸ general signs enabling a physician to infer that a doṣa, dhātu or mala has increased or decreased (11.24–25ab); decrease of waste products is more troublesome than

1 Sütrasthāna 399

increase (11.25cd); vāta resides in the bones, pitta in sweat and blood, kapha in the remaining dhātus and malas: treatments leading to increase or decrease of a dosa also result in increase or decrease of the correspondig dhātu(s) and mala(s), and the other way round, but this does not apply to vata and osseous tissue (11.26-27c); all types of increase are usually due to tarpana, all types of decrease to the opposite of tarpana; generally, increase leads to increase of kapha, decrease to decrease of vata (11.27cd-28); disorders arising from increase should be treated by means of reducing measures (langhana), 129 those brought about by decrease by means of roborants (brmhana), 130 but increase of vāta requires brmhana, its decrease langhana measures (11.29); therapeutic procedures indicated in cases of increase or decrease of a bodily element or waste product (11.30-33); portions of the bodily fire (kāyāgni), which has its own seat, are present in the bodily elements; the increase or decrease of these portions results in increase or decrease of the elements; increase or decrease of a particular element gives rise to the same condition in the succeding one of the series (11.34-35ab); corrupted dosas cause corruption of the bodily elements; corrupted dosas and elements together make the waste products corrupted, which in their turn corrupt the channels transporting them (malayana); two of these channels are present in the lower part (of the trunk), seven in the head, while sweat is transported in its own channels; corruption of these channels leads to diseases (11.35cd-36); ojas is described (11.37-39ab), 131 the causes and symptoms of decrease of oias, 132 the treatment of this condition (11.39cd-41ab); ¹³³ signs indicating increase of oias (11. 41cd); general dietary rules relating to increase and decrease of the dosas (11.42–43); general signs indicating increase or decrease of the dosas (11.44); 134 the importance of avoiding increase or decrease of the dosas (11.45).

Chapter twelve (dosabhedīya) discusses a number of issues related to the dosas.

The subjects are: the seats (sthāna) of vāta, pitta and kapha (12.1–3); ¹³⁵ the seats and functions of the five kinds of vata(12.4-9), ¹³⁶ pitta $(12.10-14)^{137}$ and kapha $(12.10-14)^{137}$ and $(12.10-14)^{137}$ 15-18ab); ¹³⁸ the qualities of substances leading to caya (accumulation), kopa (excitation) and sama (pacification) of vata, pitta and kapha (12.19-22ab); ¹³⁹ the characteristic features of caya, kopa and śama (12.22cd-24ab); 140 the three seasons in which caya, prakopa and prasama of vāta, pitta and kapha occur (12.24cd-25ab); ¹⁴¹ caya of vāta occurs in grīsma (summer), of pitta in varsāh (the rainy season), of kapha in sisira (the cool season) (12.25cd-29ab); the dosas spread over the whole body quickly, but, once excited, disappear again slowly (12.29cd-30ab); an endless number of disorders is brought about by the excited dosas, which are their only causes (12.30cd-34c); the causes of excitement of the dosas consist of wrong contact of the senses with their objects (asātmyārthasamyoga), seasonal abnormalities, and wrong conduct; each of these is of three types: deficient, excessive and improper (12.34d-35); these nine varieties are explained and illustrated by means of examples (12,36-44ab): 142 the three pathways of diseases; bahirmārga, antarmārga and madhyamamārga; examples of diseases taking one of these pathways (12.44cd-49ab); 143 signs indicating a disorder of vata (12.49cd-51c), ¹⁴⁴ pitta (12.51d-52) ¹⁴⁵ and kapha (12.53-54ab); ¹⁴⁶ the importance of these signs for a physician (12.54cd-56); diseases are of three kinds; arising from bad

acts committed in the present life (drstāpacāraja), committed in a former existence (pūrvāparādhaja), or arising from a combination of both (12.57); ¹⁴⁷ a disease arising from the dosas is brought about by specific aetiological factors (vathānidānam), a disease arising from one's karman manifests itself without these causative factors (hetu), an illness arising from both dosas and karman is powerful in its effects (mahārambha), even when the hetu is weak (12.58); the course of these types of diseases and their cure (12.59); diseases are either independent (systantra) or subordinate (paratantra); the latter are divided into prodromes (pūrvarūpa) and complications (upadrava) (12. 60); ¹⁴⁸ the characteristic features of these two groups (12.61a-c); the dosas are also either svatantra or paratantra (12.61d); a subordinate disease or dosa subsides together with the chief one, but, in case this does not happen, a powerful and afflicting complication arises which requires separate treatment (12.62-63); general rules for treating a disorder that cannot be labelled (12.64-66); any disorder can be treated adaequately by taking into consideration the corruptible constituents (dusya) of the body, the habitat (deśa) of the patient, his strength, the time of appearance of the disorder, the digestive fire of the patient, his constitution, age, character (sattva), sātmya, dietary habits, and the stage (avastha) of the disease, thus determining which dosas are involved and which treatment should be applied (12.67–68); ¹⁴⁹ pitfalls to be avoided by a physician (12.69-73); the number of varieties of increase and decrease of one dosa and combinations of two or three dosas, to equal or inequal degrees; the total number is sixty-two; the sixty-third variety is the balanced state of the dosas which is equivalent to health (12.74–78ab); ¹⁵⁰ the number of varieties becomes exceedingly large when the bodily elements are also taken into consideration (12.7cd-ef).

Chapter thirteen (doṣopakramaṇīya) is about the general treatment of disorders of the dosas.

The subjects are: the general treatment of disorders caused by vata (13.1-3), 151 pitta (13.4-9)¹⁵² and kapha (13.10-12); 153 combinations of dosas require combinations of these treatments (13.13); in general, the treatment of disorders by vata and pitta is like the regimen for the summer season, that of those by kapha and vata like the regimen for the spring, that of those by kapha and pitta like the regimen for the autumn (13.14); a dosa should be subdued in the stage of its accumulation (cava); when it has reached the stage of excitation (kopa), it should be treated without opposing one of the other dosas; when all the dosas are excited, the strongest one should be subdued without opposing the other ones (13.15); a treatment that pacifies a particular disease. but gives rise to another one, is inadequate; 154 adequate treatment leads to cure without bringing about another disease (13.16); factors which make the dosas move from the viscera (kostha) to the śākhās (extremities), bones and marmans; factors making the dosas move from the śākhās to the viscera, where they stay, waiting for a cause (of excitation); having increased in strength, due to time, etc., they reach the stage of excitation, (not only locally,) but in other places too (13.17-19); a dosa that has established itself in the seat of another dosa should be treated, when weak, in accordance with the seat, but, when powerful, according to its own nature (13.20); such an agantudosa should be pacified after opposing the normally present one, or the other way round (13.21ab): 155

doşas which have moved sideways (tiryaggata) ¹⁵⁶ trouble patients for a long time and should not be treated in haste; the physician should pacify them, bring them to the koṣṭha with gentle methods, and thentry to expel them (13.21cd-23ab); ¹⁵⁷ characteristics of doṣas associated with āma and devoid of it (13.23cd-24); the origin of āma (13.25); a divergent opinion on that subject (13.26); doṣas and corrupted dūṣyas, together with the diseases they bring about, are designated as sāma when they are mixed with this āma (13.27); the treatment of sāma conditions (13.28–33ab); the months most suitable for the elimination of doṣas (13.33cd-36); the ten periods of time for the administration of a medicine (13.37-41). ¹⁵⁸

1 Sütrasthäna

 $Chapter\ four teen\ (dvividhop a krama \\ \c n \c ya)\ deals\ with\ two\ important\ ways\ of\ treatment.$

The subjects discussed are: the two types of treatment called sanutarpana or brinhana and apatarpana or langhana (14.1-2); 159 the mahābhūtas predominantly present in roborant (brmhana) and reducing (langhana) substances (14.3ab); other therapeutic measures, such as snehana, rūksana, svedana and stambhana can be subsumed under brmhana and larighana (14.3cd-4ab): 160 larighana is either sodhana (purificatory) or śamana (pacificatory) (14.4cd); śodhana, which eliminates the dosas, is of five kinds: nirūha, vamana (emesis), kāyareka (purgation), śiroreka (evacuation of the head) and asravisruti (bloodletting) (14.5); śamana, which neither expels nor excites dosas, but normalizes them, is of seven kinds: pācana measures, dīpana measures, hunger, thirst, physical exercise, exposure to the sun (ātapa) and exposure to wind (14.6-7ab); ¹⁶¹ brmhanais only samana with regard to vata and a combination of vata and pitta (14.7cd); indications for brushana (14.8-10ab) 162 and langhana (14.10cd-15ab); 163 persons suitable for langhana should not be treated with brmhana measures when suffering from a disease, but those suitable for brinhana may be treated with mild larighana measures or a combination of langhana and brmhana, dependent on various circumstances (14. 15cd-16ab); the results of brmhana and langhana measures (14.16cd-18ab); excessive brinhana and langhana in general (14.18cd=19); excessive brinhana, its effects (14. $(14.21-28)^{164}$ and treatment $(14.21-28)^{165}$ excessive langhana, its effects $(14.29-32ab)^{166}$ and treatment (14.32cd-35); 167 foods to be recommended to obese (sthula) and lean (kṛśa) persons (14.36); therapies are either brmhana or langhana, and all diseases are to be treated in one of these two ways (14.37).

Chapter fifteen (śodhanādigaṇasaṇıgraha) 168 deals with thirty-three groups of drugs and their actions. 169

These groups consist of: emetics (chardanagana) (15.1), ¹⁷⁰ purgatives (virecana) (15.2), ¹⁷¹ drugs suitable for nirūhaṇa (15.3) ¹⁷² and evacuation of the head (uttamāngasodhana) (15.4); ¹⁷³ drugs which subdue vāta (15.5), pitta (15.6) and kapha (15.7); ¹⁷⁴ the groups called jīvanīya (15.8), ¹⁷⁵ vidāryādi (15.9–10), ¹⁷⁶ sārivādi (15.11), ¹⁷⁷ padmakādi (15.12), ¹⁷⁸ parūṣakādi (15.13), ¹⁷⁹ añjanādi (15.14), ¹⁸⁰ paṭolādi (15.15), ¹⁸¹ gudūcyādi (15.16), ¹⁸² āragvadhādi (15.17–18), ¹⁸³ asanādi (15.19–20), ¹⁸⁴ varuṇādi (15.21–22), ¹⁸⁵ ūṣakādi (15.23), ¹⁸⁶ vīratarādi (15.24–25), ¹⁸⁷ rodhrādi (15.26–27), ¹⁸⁸ arkādi (15.28–29), ¹⁸⁹ surasādi (15.30–31), ¹⁹⁰ muṣkakādi (15.32), ¹⁹¹ vatsakādi (15.33–34), ¹⁹² vacādi and haridrādi (15.35–36), ¹⁹³ priyangvādi and ambaṣṭhādi (15.

37–39), 194 mustādi (15.40), 195 nyagrodhādi (15.41–42), 196 elādi (15.43–44), 197 and śyāmādi (15.45). 198

Drugs which are not available may be substituted and those inappropriate may be left out (15.46). The drugs mentioned may be employed in various types of preparation (15.47).

Chapter sixteen (snehavidhi) is about oleation (sneha). 199

The subjects dealt with are: the properties of snehana substances; those with opposite properties are rūkṣaṇa (bringing about dryness) (16.1);200 the four most suitable substances for oleation: ghee, bone marrow, muscle fat (vasā) and oil; ghee is the very best among them (16.2–3ab);²⁰¹ the effects on the dosas of the four mentioned substances (16.3cd); their grades of heaviness (16.4ab); mixtures of two, three or four fatty substances are called yamaka, trivrta and mahant respectively (16.4cd); indications and contra-indications for oleation (16.5-8ab); 202 indications for oleation with ghee, oil, muscle fat and marrow (16.8cd-12ab); ²⁰³ the proper time for oleation (16.12cd-14ab);²⁰⁴ the various ways of administration of a sneha, either mixed with food (vicāranā) or pure (acchapeya) (16.14cd-17ab); ²⁰⁵ the doses of acchapeya: small, medium and large; indications for these doses (16.17cd-21);²⁰⁶ the general effects of a sneha (16.22); ²⁰⁷ rules to be observed by a patient subjected to snehana (16.23-29ab);²⁰⁸ the duration of the treatment (16.29cd-30ab);²⁰⁹ signs indicating proper, improper and excessive oleation (16.30cd-31); ²¹⁰ the bad effects of improper oleation (snehavyāpad) (16.32-33ab) and their treatment (16.33cd-35ab);²¹¹ the features indicating proper and improper virūksana (16.35cd)²¹² and the therapy to be applied to manage the bad effects of improper application (16.36-37ab); rules for oleation in special groups of patients (16.37cd-39ab);²¹³ types of patients who require a special type of sneha called sadvahsneha; recipes for sadvahsneha (16.39cd-43ab); ²¹⁴ more rules for particular groups of patients (16.43cd-45); ²¹⁵ the benefits of regularly applied oleation (16.46).²¹⁶

Chapter seventeen (svedavidhi) is concerned with sudation (sveda).²¹⁷

The subjects are: the four types of sudation: tāpa (application of dry heat), upanāha (application of poultices), ūṣman (application of warm vapour) and drava (application of warm liquids) (17.1ab);²¹⁸ descriptions of these four methods (17.1cd-11);²¹⁹ specifications regarding the procedure to be followed (17.12-14);²²⁰ benefits of sudation;²²¹ after-treatment (17.15);²²² the bad effects of excessive sudation²²³ and their treatment with stambhana (checking) measures; more indications for stambhana (17.16-17);²²⁴ the properties of svedana and stambhana substances (17.18-19);²²⁵ the effects of stambhana (17.20ab);²²⁶ the bad effects of excessive stambhana (17.20cd-21ab);²²⁷ contra-indications (17.21cd-24)²²⁸ and indications (17.25-27);²²⁹ types of sudation without the use of fire (anāgneyasveda) (17.28);²³⁰ the results of sudation (17.29).²³¹

Chapter eighteen (vamanavirecanavidhi) is about emesis (vamana) and purgation (virecana).

The subjects dealt with are: emesis is indicated in disorders caused by kapha singly or by combinations with a predominance of kapha; disorders by pitta alone or by combinations with a predominance of pitta should preferably be treated by purgation (18.1);²³² indications for emesis (18.2–3ab);²³³ contra-indications (18.3cd–6);²³⁴ patients regarded to be unfit for a whole series of treatments (18.7); indications (18.8-10c)²³⁵ and contra-indications for purgation²³⁶ (18.10d-11); the procedure for emesis (18.12-23c); ²³⁷ signs indicating deficient, proper and excessive emesis (18.23d-26);²³⁸ after-treatment (18.27-28);²³⁹ the regimen called peyādikrama²⁴⁰ and its results (18.29-30);²⁴¹ the minimum, intermediate and maximum number of bouts of vomiting during treatment is four, six and eight respectively; these numbers, when applied to voiding during a treatment with purgatives, are ten, twenty and thirty; the corresponding amounts of voided matter consist of one, two and four prastha (18.31; ²⁴² the limits of emesis and purgation (18.32); ²⁴³ the procedure for purgation. which is dependent on the type of digestive system (mrdu- or krūrakostha)²⁴⁴ of the patient (18.33-38ab);²⁴⁵ signs indicating deficient, proper and excessive purgation (18.38cd-42ab);²⁴⁶ after-treatment (18.42cd-47ab);²⁴⁷ emesis eliminates immature (apakva) dosas, purgation dosas which are subject to maturation (pacyamāna) (18.47cd-48ab); ²⁴⁸ rules for special groups of patients (8.48cd-57ab); ²⁴⁹ oleation and sudation are indicated in the interval between emesis and purgation, between purgation and the application of an anuvasana enema, etc., and at the end of such a series of treatments (18.57cd-58ab); oleation and sudation should always precede purificatory treatment (i.e., emesis and purgation) (18.58cd-59);²⁵⁰ the general benefits of purificatory treatment (18.60). ²⁵¹

Chapter nineteen (bastividhi) deals with enemas (basti).

The subjects are: treatment with enemas is advisable when vata has increased or when vata is the predominant one among increased dosas (19.1ab); ²⁵² the three types of basti: nirūha, anuvāsana and uttarabasti (19.1cd-2ab); indications (19.2cd-3) ²⁵³ and contra-indications (19.4-6ab)²⁵⁴ for an āsthāpana (= nirūha) enema; indications (19. 6cd-7a)²⁵⁵ and contra-indications (19.7b-9ab)²⁵⁶ for an an univasana enema; the materials for the nozzle (netra); its shape (19.9cd-10ab); its length, dependent on the age of the patient (19.10cd-12ab); the dimensions of its orifice (19.12cd-14ab); the two rings (karnikā) on the nozzle (19.14cd-15c); ²⁵⁷ the pouch (19.15d-17); ²⁵⁸ the dosages required for various age groups (19.18-19);²⁵⁹ the quantity of fluid for an amuvāsana should be one-fourth of that for a nirūha (19.20ab); ²⁶⁰ the procedure for an anuvāsana (19.20cd-35)²⁶¹ and a nirūha (19.36-38ab); ²⁶² the preparation of the decoction for a nirtiha (19.38cd-46ab); ²⁶³ rules for the application (19.46cd-50c); ²⁶⁴ after-treatment (19.50d-51ab); ²⁶⁵ the treatment of complications (19.51cd-52); the signs of deficient, proper and excessive application of anuvāsana (19.53-54ab);²⁶⁶ various rules for the application of anuvāsana and nirūha (19.54cd-62); the courses of treatment with enemas known as karma-, kāla- and yogabasti (19.63-65ab); ²⁶⁷ the advantages of combining anuvāsana and nirūha (19.65cd-67ab); the variety of anuvāsana called mātrābasti (19.67cd-68a); the indications for mātrābasti (19.68b-69);²⁶⁸ uttarabasti (urethral and vaginal douche), suitable in diseases of the bladder and gynaecological disorders, should be resorted to after the application of two or three anuvāsanas (19.70); the requirements for the nozzle (19.71–72) and the liquid (19.73ab) for an uttarabasti used as a urethral douche; the procedure (19.73cd–76ab); three or four douches should be given; ²⁶⁹ the after-treatment and diet are like those after anuvāsana (19.76cd–77ab); ²⁷⁰ indications for a vaginal douche (19.77cd–78); the nozzle (19.79–80ab); the quantity of fluid (19.80cd); the procedure (19.81–82); ²⁷¹ the interval between emesis and purgation, and that between purgation and nirūha should be a fortnight; anuvāsana should follow immediately upon nirūha, but the interval should be seven days after purgation (19.83); the general effect of enemas (19.84); the eminence of the treatment with enemas (19.85–87ab); phlebotomy has the same eminent position in diseases due to blood (19.87cd).

Chapter twenty (nasyavidhi) deals with nasal medications.

The subjects are: nasal medication (nasya) is indicated in diseases located above the clavicles (ūrdhvajatru), because the nose is the gateway to the head (20.1);²⁷² the three types of nasya: virecana (evacuating), brmhana (roborant) and samana (appeasing) (20. 2ab); ²⁷³ the indications for these three types (20.2cd-4); ²⁷⁴ the materials used in the preparation of the three types (20.5-6);²⁷⁵ another classification of nasal medications: marsa and pratimarsa are prepared with fatty substances; avapīda is prepared with the paste (kalka), etc., of drugs with a sharp (tīksna) action; dhmāna is blown into the nose in the form of a powder (cūrna) by means of a tube (nādī) (20.7–9ab);²⁷⁶ the doses to be administered and the definition of their unit, the drop (bindu) (20.9cd-11a); ²⁷⁷ contra-indications for nasal medication (20.11b-13c);²⁷⁸ the times of the day, dependent on the season, which are most suitable to the administration of a nasva (20.13d-16);²⁷⁹ the procedure to be followed in applying a nasya (20.17–21ab);²⁸⁰ the treatment to be applied when the patient faints (20.21cd); a fatty nasya should be given immediately after an evacuating one (20.22ab); ²⁸¹ after-treatment (20.22cd-23ab); ²⁸² the signs indicating proper, deficient and excessive treatment (20.23cd-25); ²⁸³ indications and contra-indications for a pratimaréa, rules for its application, its effects (20.26– 30ab); ²⁸⁴ age limits for treatment with a nasya, dhūma (fumigation) and kavala (gargle), and for śuddhi (purificatory treatment) (20.30cd-31); the efficacy of the daily use of pratimarsa (20.32-34ab); the differences between marsa and pratimarsa; the use of marsa, though more difficult and risky, has the advantages of quicker action and better results; the same differences can be observed between acchapana (of a sneha) and vicāranā, kutīsthiti and vātātapasthiti (as rasāyana methods), anuvāsana and mātrābasti (20.34cd-36); the preparation of the nasya called anutaila (20.37-38); ²⁸⁵ the beneficial effects of habitual nasal therapy (20.39). 286

Chapter twenty-one (dhūmapānavidhi) is about the inhalation of medicinal smoke.

The subjects dealt with are: the importance of daily inhaling the smoke (dhūmapāna) of drugs (21.1);²⁸⁷ snigdha, madhya and tīkṣṇa dhūmapāna are indicated against
(disorders by) vāta, vāta and kapha together, and kapha respectively (21.2ab);²⁸⁸
contra-indications (21.2cd-4ab);²⁸⁹ disorders arising from inhaling smoke at an
improper time or in excess;²⁹⁰ the treatment of these disorders (21.4cd-5ab); the times

1 Sütrasthāna 405

at which mṛdu (= snigdha), madhyama and virecana (= tīkṣṇa) dhūmapāna are useful (21.5cd-7ab);²⁹¹ requirements for the smoking pipe (dhūmanetraka) (21.7cd-9ab);²⁹² the procedure for medicinal smoking (21.9cd-12a);²⁹³ the drugs to be used for the three types of dhūmapāna (21.13b-18);²⁹⁴ the preparation of the wick (varti) (21.19-21ab);²⁹⁵ a special type of dhūmapāna for the treatment of cough (21.21cd-22ab);²⁹⁶ the beneficial effects of medicinal smoking (21.22c-f).²⁹⁷

Chapter twenty-two (gaṇḍūṣādividhi) is about gargles and a number of other medicinal preparations.

The subjects dealt with are: the four kinds of ganduşa (holding a medicinal fluid in the mouth): ²⁹⁸ snigdha, śamana, śodhana and ropana; ²⁹⁹ the first three are active against the dosas, the fourth kind heals wounds and sores (vranaghna); 300 the tastes of the drugs to be used in the preparation of these four kinds of gandusa (22.1-3c); the liquids to be employed 301 and their indications (22.3d-10ab); the procedure for the use of a gandūsa (22.10cd-11); 302 the difference between a gandūsa and a kavala (gargle) (22.12ab); 303 disorders curable by a kavala (22.12c-f); the three forms of pratisarana (the application of a medicinal preparation to the oral cavity): a kalka (paste), rasakriyā (inspissated decoction) and cūrna (powder); pratisārana with the same drugs as those employed in gandūsa is indicated in kapha disorders (22.13); 304 the three kinds of mukhālepa (the application of a paste to the face): dosaha (counteracting the dosas), visaha (counteracting poison) and varnakara (producing a normal colour) (22.14); rukes for its application (22.15-16); rules for the patient (22.17ab); contra-indications (22.17cd-18a); the curative effects (22.18b-d); six recipes, one for each season (22. 19-22ab); the beneficial effects of its habitual application (22.22cd-23ab); ³⁰⁵ the four kinds of murdhataila (application of oil to the head): abhyanga (inunction, accompanied by mild massage), (pari)seka (pouring oil on the head), picu (application of a cloth soaked in oil), and (siro)basti; each successive method is more efficaceous than the preceding one (22.23cd-24ab); indications for these four types (22.24cd-26); the procedures for (siro)basti; after-treatment; the maximum duration of the treatment (22.27-31); 306 karnapūrana (filling the auditory duct with oil); this treatment should be applied until the complaints subside, or, in healthy patients, during one hundred mātrā (22.32); ³⁰⁷ the definition of a mātrā (22.33); the curative actions and beneficial effects in general of mūrdhataila (22.34).308

Chapter twenty-three (āścotanāñjanavidhi) is concerned with eyedrops and collyria.

The subjects dealt with are: the usefulness of āścotana (the application of eyedrops) in the initial stage of all eye diseases (23.1); the suitable temperature of the drops, dependent on the doṣa involved (23.2ab); the procedure for the application of eyedrops (23.2cd-4); the bad effects of wrong application (23.5-6); the beneficial effects of correct administration (23.7); ³⁰⁹ indications for the application of an añjana (collyrium) to the eyes (23.8-9); ³¹⁰ the three types of añjana: lekhana (scarifying), ropaṇa (healing) and dṛṣṭiprasādana (clarifying the vision); ³¹¹ the tastes and vīrya of the drugs to be employed in these three types (23.10-11ab); ³¹² a pratyañjana is a collyrium of prasādana action, to be used when the eyes are irritated by a sharp (tīkṣna) añjana (23.11cd-

12ab); ³¹³ the requirements for the rod (śalākā) for the application of an añjana (23. 12cd–13); ³¹⁴the three preparations employed in an añjana: piṇḍa (pill), rasakriyā (inspissated decoction) and cūrṇa (powder), indicated in serious, moderate and mild (disorders of the) doṣas respectively (23.14); ³¹⁵ the correct doses of these three preparations (23.15–16ab); ³¹⁶ the most suitable periods of time for an añjana (23.16cd–22); ³¹⁷ contra-indications for an añjana (23.23–24); ³¹⁸ properties making an añjana unsuitable for use (23.25); after-treatment (23.26–31). ³¹⁹

Chapter twenty-four (tarpaṇapuṭapākavidhi) is, as its title indicates, on the associated procedures called tarpaṇa and puṭapāka.

Its subjects are: the indications for tarpana (saturating the eyes by bathing them in a fatty substance), the suitable periods of time for this treatment; the procedure to be followed; the choice of the fatty substance; the duration of the treatment (24.1–9); ³²⁰ daily tarpana is required in disorders by vāta, tarpana on alternate days in disorders by pitta, with an interval of two days in disorders by kapha and in healthy persons, or until the eyes are fully saturated (24.10); ³²¹ signs indicating proper, deficient and excessive treatment (24.11); ³²² tarpana should be followed by putapāka treatment (24.12–13ab); ³²³ indications for the snehana, lekhana and prasādana types of putapāka (24.13cd–14ab); ³²⁴ the materials to be employed in these three types (24.14cd–17ab); ³²⁵ the preparation of a putapāka (24.17cd–19ab); ³²⁶ the procedure for its application (24.19cd–20c), ³²⁷ the signs of proper, deficient and excessive treatment are like those of tarpana (24.20d); ³²⁸ contra-indications (24.21ab); after-treatment following tarpana and putapāka (24.21cd–22ab); ³²⁹ the importance of strengthening the eyes (24.22c–f).

Chapter twenty-five (yantravidhi) is concerned with blunt surgical instruments.

The subjects dealt with are: the definition of a yantra (blunt surgical instrument); its various uses (25.1–3ab);³³⁰ the various types of svastikayantra (25.4cd–7ab);³³¹ the two types of samdamáa (25.7cd–8);³³² the mucundī (25.9);³³³ the two types of tā-layantra (25.10); ³³⁴ nādīyantras in general (25.11–12); ³³⁵ a number of particular nādīyantras, amongst which the arśoyantra³³⁶ (for examining haemorrhoids) and śamīyantra (for squeezing haemorrhoids); the aṅgulitrāṇaka (finger protector) ³³⁸ (25.13–25); the śṛṅga (horn), alābu (hollowed gourd) and ghaṭī (pot) (25.26–28ab); ³³⁹ the śalākā in general; various types of śalākā and śaṅku (hook) (25.28cd–35); more types of śalākā; the jāmbavauṣṭha³⁴⁰ (25.36–39ab); ³⁴¹ the anuyantras (accessory blunt instruments) (25.39cd–41ab); ³⁴² the functions of the yantras (25.41c–f); ³⁴³ the excellent qualities of the kaṅkamukhayantra as the foremost among the yantras (25.42). ³⁴⁴

Chapter twenty-six (sastravidhi) is concerned with sharp surgical instruments.

The subjects dealt with are: the requirements for the twenty-six śastras (sharp instruments) (26.1–4); ³⁴⁵ a list of the twenty-six śastras (four additional verses); ³⁴⁶ descriptions of the form, dimensions, etc., and the uses of each instrument: ³⁴⁷ maṇḍalāgra (26.5); vṛddhipattra (26.6–7ab); utpala(pattra) and adhyardhadhāra (26.7cd); sarpāsya (26.8ab); ³⁴⁸ two kinds of eṣaṇī: gaṇḍūpadamukhā and sūcīmukhā

(26.8cd-9ab); ³⁴⁹ vetasa(pattra), śarāryāsya ³⁵⁰ and trikūrcaka (26.9cd); kuśayadana ³⁵¹ and ātāvadana 352 (26.10ab); antarmukha 353 (and ardhacandrānana) 354 (26.10cd-11a); vrīhimukha (26.11b-d); kuthārī (26.12); śalākā (26.13a-c);³⁵⁵ anguliśastra (26.13c-15); 356 badiśa (26.16ab); karapattra (26.16cd-17ab); kartarī (26.17cd); 357 nakhaśastra (26.18); dantalekhanaka (26.19); 358 three kinds of sūcī (26.20-21ab); vrīhivaktrā sūcī (26.21cd-22a); 360 kūrca (26.22b-23ab); 361 khaja (26.23cd-24ab); 362 karņapālīvyadhana (26.24cd); ³⁶³ ārā, and a sūcī for piercing thick earlobes (26.25-26); non-metallic anusastras (accessory sharp instruments), such as leeches, caustics, fire, glass, stones, nails, etc. (26.27-28ab); ³⁶⁴ the functions of sharp instruments (26.28cd-29ab); 365 the eight defects (dosa) of sharp instruments (26.29cd-30ab); 366 the ways of handling the sharp instruments (26.30cd-32); ³⁶⁷ the case for keeping the instruments (śastrakośa) (26.33–34); 368 indications for the use of leeches (jalaukas) (26.35ab); 369 poisonous leeches, disorders caused by using them, the treatment of these disorders (26.35cd-37c); ³⁷⁰ non-poisonous leeches (26.37d-38); ³⁷¹ non-poisonous leeches are to be rejected when they are intoxicated by blood (raktamatta) (26.39);³⁷² the application of leeches and their removal (26.40-43ab); 373 the method for making the leeches vomit the blood sucked (26.43cd); the leeches should be protected from intoxication by blood (raktamada) and not be used again for seven days (26.44ab); signs indicating that their vomiting has been proper, deficient or excessive (26. 44cd-45ab); ³⁷⁴ the storage of leeches (26.45cd-46ab); ³⁷⁵ the treatment to be applied when not all the corrupted blood has been removed (by the leeches) (26.46cd-47ab): removal of the corrupted blood makes redness and pain subside (26.47cd); corrupted blood that accumulates becomes sour (vyamla) (26.48); removal of corrupted blood by means of a gourd or pot is indicated when the corruption is caused by vata or kapha, contra-indicated when caused by pitta (26.49); blood corrupted by vata or pitta may be removed by a horn, but this is contra-indicated when kapha is the corrupting agent (26.50);³⁷⁶ bloodletting by means of scratching (pracchāna) (26.51-52);³⁷⁷ indications for bloodletting by scratching, by the use of leeches, a horn, gourd or pot, and by means of phlebotomy (26.53-55ab);³⁷⁸ the treatment of the site of bleeding (26.55-56), ³⁷⁹

Chapter twenty-seven (sirāvyadha) 380 is concerned with phlebotomy.

The subjects dealt with are: the characteristics of pure (śuddha) blood (27.1–2ab); ³⁸¹ usually, blood gets corrupted by pitta and kapha; the disorders arising from corrupted blood (27.2cd–5ab); ³⁸² phlebotomy is the appropriate treatment in these disorders (27.5cd); contra-indications for phlebotomy (27.6–9ab); ³⁸³ the sites for phlebotomy in various diseases (27.9cd–18ab); ³⁸⁴ the procedure to be followed for phlebotomy, dependent on the site where a vein should be cut (27.18cd–32); ³⁸⁵ the depth of the incision and the instruments to be employed (27.33); ³⁸⁶ the flow of blood when the cut is adequate, inadequate or too large (27.34–35ab); ³⁸⁷ causes for the non-flowing of blood (27.35cd–36ab); ³⁸⁸ the treatment of this condition (27.36cd–37); ³⁸⁹ the corrupted blood flows out first (27.38ab); ³⁹⁰ the signs of successful phlebotomy (27.38cd); ³⁹¹ the treatment of patients who faint during bleeding (27.39); ³⁹² the characteristics of blood corrupted by vata, pitta, kapha, a combination of two dosas and all

three dosas (27.40–41); ³⁹³ the maximum amount of blood to be let; ³⁹⁴ the bad effects of excessive bleeding ³⁹⁵ and their treatment (27.42–43ab); the treatment of the site of bleeding (27.43cd–44ab); when to repeat the bleeding procedure (27.44cd–45ab); ³⁹⁶ a small residue of corrupted blood may be allowed to remain; excessive letting should always be avoided (27.45cd–46ab); ³⁹⁷ methods to remove small amounts of corrupted blood (27.46cd–47); haemostasis (27.48–50); ³⁹⁸ after-treatment (27.51–52); ³⁹⁹ the characteristics of persons with purified blood (27.53). ⁴⁰⁰

Chaptertwenty-eight (śalyāharanavidhi) is about the removal (āharana) offoreign bodies (śalya).

The subjects dealt with are: the five ways of entry (gati) of a salya (28.1ab);⁴⁰¹ the general characteristics of a wound (vrana) containing a foreign body (28.1cd-2); 402 the signs indicating that a foreign body is present in a particular tissue, type of vessel, or other bodily structure (28.3-10ab); 403 a wound caused by a foreign body lodged somewhere in the direction of the hair (anuloma) heals when the patient is healthy, though problems may arise later (28.10cd-11 ab); 404 the determination of the site of a foreign body (28.11cd-17); 405 the shape of the foreign body determines the shape of the wound (28.18); foreign bodies may be removed in the direction of entry or in the opposite direction (28.19): 406 those salvas which have entered sideways may be removed by cutting (28.20ab); types of salvas that should not be removed (28.20cd-21); foreign bodies which may be removed with the hand or particular instruments (28.22-24);⁴⁰⁷ foreign bodies to be removed by cutting with sharp instruments (28.25); the removal of salvas lodged in sirās or snāvus (28.26ab); the removal of a salva lodged in the cardiac region $(28.26cd-27)^{408}$ and the bones $(28.28-31)^{409}$; the removal of arrows $(28.32-34ab)^{410}$; the removal of a foreign body lodged in the gastro-intestinal tract (28.34cd-35ab), 411 throat (28.35cd-38ab), 412 oral cavity or nose (28.38cd); the treatment of a food bolus (grāsasalya) that has become arrested in the throat (28.39ab); 413 the removal of salyas from the eyes or wounds (28.39cd); 414 the treatment of persons who nearly drowned and are full of water (28.40); 415 the treatment of persons into whose ears a small animal (kīta) has entered (28.42); foreign bodies that get dissolved by the bodily heat (28.43); those that do not dissolve may cause suppuration (28.44-45ab); suppuration, if not occurring spontaneously, should be induced; afterwards, the foreign body should be removed surgically (28.45cd-47ab). 416

Chapter twenty-nine (śastrakarmavidhi) is concerned with sores (vraņa) and their treatment.

The subjects dealt with are: sores tend to develop into suppurative ulcers; hence, pus formation should by all means be prevented (29.1–2ab);⁴¹⁷ the three stages of local swellings (śopha): unripe (āma), ripening (pacyamāna) and ripe (pakva) (29.2cd–6ab);⁴¹⁸ ripening (pāka) as a process to which each of the doṣas, as well as blood, contributes (29.6cd–7ab);⁴¹⁹ the symptoms arising when the formation of pus increases (29.7cd–8ab); the symptoms of the type of swelling, with a predominance of kapha, that is called raktapāka (29.8cd–10ab);⁴²⁰ general indications for dāraņa (i.e., the application of caustics, etc., which makes the swelling burst)⁴²¹ and pāṭana (treatment

with sharp instruments) (29.10cd-11ab); the bad effects of cutting an unripe swelling (29.11cd-14ab); 422 the treatment preceding surgical intervention (29.14cd-16ab); 423 the procedure for surgical intervention (pātana) (29.16cd-22ab); places where a horizontal incision should be made (29.22cd-23); after-treatment; rules for the regimen of the patient (29.24-33); 424 dietary rules for the patient (29.34-41ab); 425 more rules for after-treatment (29.41cd-48); types of vranas that should be sutured (sīvya) (29. 49–51ab); 426 contra-indications for suturing (29.51cd–52ab); 427 wound toilet before suturing, the technique of suturing and the materials to be used (29.52cd-54ab); 428 after-treatment (29.54cd-56); 429 materials for bandages (bandhana) (29.57-59ab); 430 the fifteen types of bandage and the indications for these types (29.59cd-61);⁴³¹ rules for the application of a bandage (29.62-66ab); ⁴³² the bad effects of not bandaging a vrana (29.66cd-67); 433 the beneficial effects of bandaging (29.68); 434 the treatment of chronic vranas with drugs wrapped in the leaves of particular trees (29.70cd-72ab); contra-indications for bandaging (29.72cd-74ab);⁴³⁵ vranas, not protected by a bandage, may get infested by the larvae of flies; 436 the symptoms of this condition and its treatment (29.74cd-77ab); vranas with a residual dosa cannot be cured within a short time (29.77cd-78ab); rules to be observed by a patient after healing of a vrana (29. 78cd-79); the management of complications (29.80).

Chapter thirty (kṣārāgnikarmavidhi) is about the application of caustics (kṣāra) and cautery (agnikarman).

The subjects are: the advantages of treatment with a caustic, which is the best among the sastras and anusastras (30.1-2); 437 indications for the internal and external use of a caustic (30.3-4ab);⁴³⁸ contra-indications (30.4cd-8ab);⁴³⁹ the preparation of a caustic of moderate strength (30.8cd-20a); 440 the preparation of a mild and a strong caustic (30,20b-22ab); ⁴⁴¹ indications for these three types of caustic (30,22cd-23); ⁴⁴² the ten qualities of a caustic; 443 a caustic acts like a sharp instrument and like fire; various actions of a caustic (30.24-26); general rules for the application (30.27-28a);⁴⁴⁴ rules for particular diseases (30.28b-30); after-treatment (30.31-34ab);⁴⁴⁵ signs indicating proper, deficient and excessive treatment with a caustic (30.34cd-37); 446 the treatment to be employed after excessive application (30.38-39);⁴⁴⁷ the harmful effects of a caustic administered by a bad physician and its beneficial effects when applied properly (additional verse);⁴⁴⁸ cauterization (agni) is even superior to the treatment with a caustic (30.40); 449 indications for cauterization and the materials to be used in particular diseases (30.41–44a); 450 contra-indications (30.44b–d); 451 the coating and paste to be applied after cauterization (30.45ab);⁴⁵² signs indicating proper cauterization (30.45cd-46ab); 453 accidental burns (pramādadagdha) produce the same symptoms as improper and excessive cauterization; the signs characteristic of tucchadagdha, 454 durdagdha (improper burning) and atidagdha (excessive burning) (30.46cd-49ab); 455 the treatment of tucchadagdha, durdagdha, samyagdagdha and atidagdha (30.49cd-52ab);⁴⁵⁶ the treatment of burns by hot fatty substances (snehadagdha) (30,52cd), 457

The last verse (30.53) concludes the Sūtrasthāna. 458

Chapter 2 Śārīrasthāna

Chapter one² (garbhāvakrānti)³ deals with the following subjects: a living being (sattva) arises, in the form of an embryo (garbha), from pure sukra (semen) and artava (the female procreational fluid) (1.1); this embryo, formed from subtle (sūksma) mahābhūtas, followed by sattva, 4 develops gradually in the womb (1.2); 5 the invisible entry of sattva into the womb (1.3); the various destinies of sattva (1.4); the relative proportions of sukra and artava determine the sex of the child (1.5); splitting of sukra and artava by vata gives rise to a multiple birth; 6 disorders of the dosas cause abnormalities in the child (1.6); the menstrual discharge (rajas), derived from rasa, appears for three days every month; it begins to appear at the age of twelve and diminishes at the age of fifty (1.7); the union of a woman of sixteen and a man of twenty years, who are both healthy, may result in the birth of a strong child: 8 if the ages of the partners are less, the child will be either sickly or short-lived, or conception will not take place (1.8-9); 9 the disorders of sukra and artava: caused by vata, pitta or kapha, caused by blood and called kunapa, caused by kapha and vata and called granthi, caused by blood and pitta and called pūyābha, caused by vāta and pitta and called kṣīṇa, and another type, called malāhvaya; the last type is of two varieties and makes sukra or ārtava smell like either urine or faeces; these disorders are usually curable with difficulty, but the disorder caused by all three dosas together, i.e., the malahvaya type, is incurable (1.10-12ab); 10 the treatment of these disorders (1.12cd-16); 11 the characteristics of normal sukra and ārtava (1.17–18ab); 12 the description of a couple fit for procreation (1.18cd-20ab); ¹³ the characteristic features of a woman in her fertile period (rtumati) (1.20cd-21ab); 14 the closure of the womb after the fertile period (1.21cd-22ab); 15 the process of menstruation (1.22cd-23ab); 16 rules to be observed during the three days of menstruation and on the fourth day (1.23cd-26ab); ¹⁷ the fertile period (tu) (1.26cd-27ab); 18 the ritual ensuring conception (putrīyavidhi) (1.27cd-33); 19 rules for sexual intercourse (1.34–35ab);²⁰ the signs indicating conception (1.35cd-36);²¹ the pumsavana ritual, which determines the sex of the child to be born, should be performed during the first month of pregnancy, when the embryo is in the kalala stage and its sexual organs are still undeveloped; the description of the ritual, followed by measures to stabilize the embryo (1.37-42); 22 general rules for the behaviour and diet of a pregnant woman (1.43-49ab);²³ the embryo develops from a kalala into a ghana, peśī or arbuda, dependent on its sex (male, female, klība)²⁴ (1.49cd-50a);²⁵ the characteristics of a pregnant woman (1.50b-52ab); ²⁶ the longings (śraddhā)²⁷ of a pregnant woman (1.52cd-54ab);²⁸ the development of the foetus from the third up to the ninth month and onwards; dietary rules for the mother; the treatment of disorders

occurring during the seventh and eighth months of pregnancy (1.54cd-69ab);²⁹ signs indicating that a male, respectively female child will be born (1.69cd-71); signs indicating the birth of a klība; signs indicating the birth of twins (1.72);³⁰ the construction of the maternity hut (sūtikāgṭha) (1.73-74ab);³¹ signs indicating the approach of delivery (1.74cd-76);³² the management of labour (1.77-82);³³ the treatment of protracted labour (saṅga) and retention of the placenta (jarāyvapatana) (1.83-89ab);³⁴ other methods for removing the placenta (aparā) (1.89cd-91);³⁵ the treatment of the disorder called makkalla (1.92-93ab);³⁶ the care of the newborn child (1.93cd);³⁷ the treatment of the new mother (1.94-101).³⁸

Chapter two (garbhavyāpad) deals with the following subjects: the general treatment of bleeding and pain during pregnancy (2.1-6ab); ³⁹ the treatment of bleeding during the first three months of pregnancy (2.6cd-9ab);⁴⁰ the treatment of miscarriage (garbhapāta) (2.9cd-13);⁴¹ the characteristics of the disorders called upavistaka and nāgodara (2.14-16);⁴² the treatment of these disorders (2.17-18ab);⁴³ the treatment of līnagarbha (2.18cd-21ab); 44 the treatment of udāvarta during pregnancy (2.21cd-22ab);⁴⁵ the signs indicating foetal death (2.22cd-24ab);⁴⁶ the treatment of this condition by the administration of drugs, accompanied by mantras (2.24cd-26a); manual extraction of a dead foetus (2.26b-27c); correction of a malposition, followed by manual extraction (2.27d-28);⁴⁷ the two types of malposition (mūdhagarbha) which are called viskambha require surgical intervention and the use of sharp instruments (2.29-31ab); the description of surgical techniques for removal of a dead foetus (2.31cd-37);48 contra-indications, necessitating refusal of treatment (2.38); the management immediately after extraction of the foetus and removal of the placenta (2.39-40);⁴⁹ after-treatment during a period up to four months after the intervention (2.41-46); 50 the preparation of balātaila, dear to Dhanvantari, beneficial in puerperal disorders and many other diseases (2.47-52); 51 caesarean section, to be resorted to when the child is still alive after the death of the mother during parturition (2.53);⁵² recipes against an imminent miscarriage during the first to tenth months of pregnancy; 53 miscarriage should not be ascribed to the snatching away of the foetus by evil beings (bhūta) (2.61-62).

Chapter three (angavibhāga) deals with the following subjects: the six major (anga)⁵⁴ and the minor parts (pratyanga)⁵⁵ of the body (3.1); the qualities of the five mahābhūtas (3.2); the parts of the body derived from each of the five mahābhūtas (3.3–4ab); ⁵⁶ the entities derived from mother, respectively father (3.4cd–5ab), ⁵⁷ from cetanā⁵⁸ (3.5cd), ⁵⁹ sātmya (3.6ab), ⁶⁰ rasa (3.6cd), ⁶¹ sattva, rajas and tamas (3.7–8ab); ⁶² the seven layers of the skin, derived from blood (3.8–9ab); ⁶³ the seven kalās (3.9cd–10c); ⁶⁴ the seven receptacles (āśaya) (3.10cd–11ab); ⁶⁵ an eighth receptacle, found in women, is the garbhāśaya; it is situated between the pittāśaya and pakvāśaya (3.11cd); ⁶⁶ the viscera (koṣṭhāngāni) consist of the heart, kloman, phupphusa, liver, spleen, unḍuka, the two kidneys, navel, dimbha, intestines, and bladder (3.12); ⁶⁷ the ten seats of life (jīvitadhāman) are the head, frenulum linguae (rasanabandhana), throat, blood, heart, navel, bladder, semen, ojas, and ano-rectal region (guda) (3.13); ⁶⁸ the body

possesses sixteen jālas⁶⁹ and an equal number of kandarās, ⁷⁰ six kūrcas, ⁷¹ seven sīvanīs, 72 four māmsaraijus, 73 fourteen asthisamghātas, 74 and eighteen sīmantas 75 (3.14-15); the number of bones, teeth and nails included, is three hundred and sixty, but their number is three hundred according to Dhanvantari; 76 there are two hundred and ten junctures (sandhi), but their number is two thousand according to Atri's son (3.16-17ab);⁷⁷ the number of snayus is nine hundred;⁷⁸ the number of muscles (peśī) is five hundred in men; women have twenty more of them⁷⁹ (3.17cd-18ab); there are ten chief sirās, connected with the heart, which carry rasa and oias to all parts of the body; they split up repeatedly into a number of seven hundred branches (3.18cd-20ab); 80 the number of sirās in the various body parts; the sirās that should not be used for bloodletting (3.20cd-34); 81 one-fourth out of the seven hundred sirās carry blood mixed with vata; an equal number carry blood mixed with pitta, blood mixed with kapha, and pure blood respectively (3.35);82 the characteristics of these four types of sirā (3.36cd-38); 83 the twenty-four dhamanīs, attached to the navel (3.39-40ab);⁸⁴ the nine channels (srotas)⁸⁵ and the three additional ones in women (3.40cd-41ab); the thirteen internal channels (antahsrotas), which are seats of life (jīvitāyatana): one for prāna, one for each of the seven dhātus, one for each of the three main waste products (mala), one for water, and one for food (3.41cd-42); 86 the characteristics of these channels (3.43); 87 causes of corruption of the channels (3.44); 88 the characteristics of corruption of the channels (srotodusti) (3.45); 89 the minute openings of the channels provide the body with rasa (3.45); the symptoms of injury (vyadha) to the channels and its treatment (3.47-48); 90 the kind of pitta called pācaka digests the food; this pācaka pitta is, in Ātreya's opinion, identical with the heat (ūsman) of the dosas, dhātus, malas, etc. (3.49); its seat is the grahanī, but, in Dhanvantari's opinion, it is the pittadharā kalā; its location and functions; its close association with the digestive fire; digestion of the food by the digestive fire as a crucial process leading to nourishment of the dhatus (3.50-54); 91 the process of digestion and its stages (3.55-58); 92 the fires (ūṣman) of the five mahābhūtas digest the respective fractions of the food (3.59); 93 when digested, these fractions nourish the corresponding components of the body (3.60);⁹⁴ the digested food is separated into a waste (kitta) and an essential (sāra) portion; the transparent (accha) part of kitta becomes urine, the inspissated (ghana) part becomes faeces (3.61); 95 sāra is further transformed under the influence of the fires of the seven bodily elements (3.62ab); the successive transformation of the seven bodily elements (3.62cd-63ab):⁹⁶ the seven waste products of the seven bodily elements (3.63cd-64ab);⁹⁷ the essential parts (prasada) and the waste products are produced only by digestion (paka) (3.64cd); the complete series of transformations of the bodily elements, from ingested food to śukra, takes one day; some adhere to a period of six days, others again to a period of one month (3.65-66); aphrodisiacs (vṛṣya), due to their specific action (prabhāva), produce semen immediately; other types of drugs often show their effect within a day and a night (3.67); vyāna makes the rasa circulate throughout the body (3.68); 98 a disorder arises at a place where the flow of rasa is obstructed; in the same manner, excitation of the dosas occurs at a particular location (3.69-70ab); 99 the digestive fire is the most important among the bodily fires; it should be protected with great care, since all the other fires are dependent on it (3.70cd-72); 100 the digestive fire is steady (sama) when the samāna stays in its own seat, unsteady (visama) when the samāna leaves its pathway; it becomes very active (tīksna) by the association of samāna with pitta, sluggish (manda) by the association of samāna with kapha (3.73); thus, the fire is of four types: sama, visama, tiksna and manda (3.74ab); the characteristic features of these four types (3.74cd-76); 101 the three types of strength (bala): sahaja, kālaja and yuktikrta (3.77-78); 102 the three types of country: jāngala, ānūpa and sādhārana (3. 79); 103 the quantities of the bodily constituents (3.80–82); 104 the origin of the seven kinds of constitution (prakrti) (3.83): dominated by vata (3.84-89), pitta (3.90-95), kapha (3.96-103), two dosas, or all three dosas (3.104ab); 105 the typology according to the three gunas (3.104cd); ¹⁰⁶ the three main stages of the human life cycle (vayas) (3.105); ¹⁰⁷ the ideal height of the human body (3.106ab); the eight censured (nindita) types of persons (3.106cd-107ab); ¹⁰⁸ auspicious bodily and mental characteristics (3. 107cd-116); ¹⁰⁹ the sara typology (3.117-118); ¹¹⁰ the praiseworthy features of persons with a predominance of sattva, in contrast with the characteristics of persons dominated by rajas or tamas (3.119); 111 features leading to a long span of life (3.120).

Chapter four (marmavibhāga) deals with the marmans.

The subjects are: the total number, namely 107, of the marmans; their number in the various parts of the body: eleven in each leg and arm, three in the abdomen, nine in the chest, fourteen in the back, thirty-seven in neck and head (4.1-2ab); 112 the location of the marmans of legs and arms, their names, and the effects of injury (4.2cd-9); the same concerning the marmans of the trunk (4.10-17ab), back (4.17cd-26ab), neck and head (4.26-37ab); 113 a marman is a place where uneven throbbings (spandana) are found and where pain occurs on pressure: it is a meeting place of muscular tissue (māmsa), osseous tissue (asthi), snāyus, dhamanīs, sirās and junctures (sandhi); life (jīvita) is dependent on the integrity of the marmans; they are divided into six groups according to their predominant structural element, but they form one whole as seats of the vital breaths (prānāyatana) (4.37cd-39);¹¹⁴ the ten māmsamarmans, eight asthimarmans, twenty-three snāyumarmans, nine dhamanīmarmans, thirty-seven sirāmarmans, and twenty sandhimarmans (4.40-45ab); 115 some adhere to a partly different classification (4.45cd-46); 116 the effects of injury to each of the six groups of marman (4.47-51); the nineteen marmans which are sadyahprānahara, the thirty-three which are kālāntaraprānahara, the three which are višalyaghna, the forty-four which are vaikalyakara, and the eight which are rujākara; the effects of injury to each of these five groups (4.52-59); 117 the sizes of the marmans (4.60-63a); 118 according to another opinion, the size of the marmans is like that of a sesamum or rice grain (4.63bc); ¹¹⁹ the four groups of sirās, mentioned previously, ¹²⁰ form part of marmans; injury to these marmans leads therefore to serious disorders, which may end in death (4.63d-66ab); the treatment of injury to these marmans (4.66cd-67); the danger of injury to marmans; treatment with caustics, poisonous substances and cautery should be avoided (4.68-70).

Chapter five (vikrtivijñānīya)¹²¹ deals with the following subjects: the importance of knowledge concerning signs foreboding death (rista); the definition of a rista as a change (vikrti) of a person's prakrti; 122 a patient's death is always preceded by the appearance of ristas (5.1-2 and some additional verses); 123 some distinguish two types of rista: permanent (sthāyin) and temporary (asthāyin); 124 the latter type only resembles a rista (ristābhāsa) and disappears again when a serious disorder of the dosas subsides (5.3-4ab); 125 changes, occurring without any apparent reason, with respect to a patient's outward appearance (rūpa), sense organs (indriya), voice (svara), chāyā and praticchāvā, functions and activities (kriyā), etc., should be regarded as ristas (5.4cd-5); ¹²⁶ fatal signs relating to rūpa (5.6-21ab), ¹²⁷ the indrivas (5.21cd-38ab), svara (5.38cd-41ab); the characteristics of chāyā and praticchāyā (5.41cd-43); 128 fatal signs relating to praticchāyā (5.44-45); the five varieties of chāyā (5.46-48): 129 the vāyavī chāyā is inauspicious, the other varieties are auspicious (5.49ab); 130 the seven varieties of prabhā; the auspicious and inauspicious varieties (5.49cd-51ab); ¹³¹ the distinctive characteristics of varna, chāyā and prabhā (5.5 lcd-53ab); ¹³² fatal signs relating to kriyā (5.53cd-70ab); ¹³³ fatal signs in particular diseases (5.70cd-116); ¹³⁴ various fatal signs (5.117-128);¹³⁵ a physician should, even when questioned, not inform relatives and friends of the approaching death of a patient (5.129); concluding verses (5.130-132).

Chapter six (dūtādivi jñānīya) deals with the following subjects: a messenger (dūta) belonging to the same religious community (pākhaṇḍa), stage of life (āśrama) and social class (varṇa) (as the patient) augurs well; if otherwise, he bodes ill (6.1); ¹³⁶ characteristics of inauspicious messengers (6.2–16); ¹³⁷ inauspicious omina on the way to the patient (6.17–23ab); ¹³⁸ good and bad omina on the way to the patient (6.23cd–27); ¹³⁹ bad omina observed on entering the patient's house (6.28); ¹⁴⁰ auspicious omina of the same group (6.30–39); ¹⁴¹ inauspicious dreams (6.40cd–60); ¹⁴² the seven types of dreams (6.61); ¹⁴³ the effects of dreams, dependent on their type and various circumstances (6.62–65ab); ¹⁴⁴ auspicious dreams (6.65cd–71ab); ¹⁴⁵ features indicating the recovery of health (6.71cd–73ab), ¹⁴⁶

Chapter 3 Nidānasthāna

Chapter one (sarvaroganidāna) deals with: the terms designating disease (1.1); 2 the five means of obtaining knowledge about diseases: nidana (aetiology), pūrvarūpa (prodromes), rūpa (symptomatology), upaśaya (therapeutic diagnosis) and samprāpti (pathogenesis) (1.2);³ the synonyms of nidāna (1.3a-c);⁴ the definition of prāgrūpa (= pūrvarūpa) (1.3d-4);⁵ the definition and the synonyms of rūpa (1.5);⁶ the definition of upaśaya or sātmya; its opposite is anupaśaya or asātmya (1.6-7); the definition and the synonyms of samprāpti (1.8); 8 the five subdivisions of samprāpti: samkhyā (number), vikalpa (discrimination), prādhānya (predominance), bala (force) and kāla (time); the explanation and illustration of these terms (1.9-11); thus has been proclaimed what is meant by nidana (1.12ab); 10 all diseases are caused by the excited dosas; their excitation is brought about by the indulgence in anything that is unwholesome (1.12cd-13ab): 11 these unwholesome things consist of the three kinds of contact (yoga) with the three factors previously mentioned (1.13cd); 12 the causes of excitement of vata (1.14-15), 13 pitta (1.16), 14 kapha (1.17-18c), 15 two dosas (1.18d), and all three dosas together (1.19-23ab); ¹⁶ the excited dosas reach the rasa-carrying vessels, which bring them to the sites where particular diseases are produced (1.23cd-24).

Chapter two (jvaranidāna) deals with: the origin and general features of fever (jvara) (2.1-2); 17 the eight types of fever (2.3a-c); 18 its pathogenesis (2.3cd-6ab); 19 its prodromes (2.6cd-10ab); ²⁰ the symptoms of fever caused by vāta (2.10cd-18ab), ²¹ pitta (2.18cd-20)²² and kapha (2.21-22);²³ the periods of time at which a fever begins and increases (2.23ab); ²⁴ causative factors of a particular flever should be regarded as anupaśaya, their opposites as upaśaya (2.23cd); 25 the symptoms of fever by two dosas in general (2.23ef); ²⁶ the symptoms of fever by vāta and pitta (2.24),²⁷ vāta and kapha (2.25),²⁸ kapha and pitta (2.26);²⁹ the symptoms of fever caused by the three dosas collectively (samnipātaivara). 30 also called abhinvāsa and hrtaujas (2.27-33);³¹ features making a fever incurable or difficult to cure (2.34);³² fevers in which a burning sensation (daha) or shivering (sta) occurs in an early or, respectively, a late stage (2.35-37);³³ the four kinds of exogenous (agantu) fever: caused by abhighāta (trauma), abhisanga, śāpa (curses), and abhicāra (magic); the four varieties of abhighāta; vāta corrupts blood in a traumatic fever; the symptoms of a traumatic fever; abhisanga includes possession (āveśa) by a graha, (the smell of) herbs, poisonous substances, anger, fear, grief, and sexual passion; the symptoms of these seven varieties of abhisanga fever; the first three lead to excitement of all three dosas; anger

leads to excitement of pitta; the last three of the series lead to excitement of vāta; the fevers caused by curses and magic are severe and of the sanmipata type; the symptoms of fever caused by magic (2.38–45);³⁴ fevers may also be classified as bodily (śārīra) and mental (mānasa), 35 saumya and tīkṣṇa, 36 antarāśraya (central) and bahirāśraya (peripheral),³⁷ prākrta (in agreement with the season) and vaikrta (disagreeing with the season), 38 curable and incurable, 39 sāma (associated with āma) and nirāma (devoid of āma) (2.46-47ab); the general sense of heat (tāpa) arises in the body first in a bodily, in the mind first in a mental fever (2.47cd);⁴⁰ the yogavāhitva of vāta leads to a feeling of coldness (sīta) when this dosa is associated with kapha, to a burning sensation (daha) when it is associated with pitta, and to a mixture of these sensations when associated with both (2.48); 41 the symptoms of antar- and bahirvega fevers (2.49); 42 the characteristics of prakrta and vailerta fevers (2.50); 43 the connections among the dosas, the seasons, and fever (2.51-52);⁴⁴ features making a fever curable, respectively incurable (2.53);⁴⁵ the features of a fever in the sāma, pacyamāna and jīrna (= nirāma or pakva) stages (2.54-56ab); 46 the five types of visama įvara: samtata, satata, anyedyus, trtīyaka, and caturthaka (2.56cd-57); the description of samtata fever, which resides particularly in the rasa (2.58-63);⁴⁷ general features of the other visama įvaras (2.64–69ab); 48 the characteristics of satata, anyedyus and trūyaka, which reside particularly in the blood, muscular tissue, and fatty tissue respectively (2.69cd-70); ⁴⁹ the three varieties of trtīvaka, with a predominant involvement of pitta and vāta, kapha and pitta, or vāta and kapha (2.71); 50 the characteristics of caturthaka, which resides in fatty tissue, bone marrow and osseous tissue, or, according to others, in the bone marrow only; 51 its two varieties, with a predominance of kapha or vata (2.72-73ab);⁵² caturthakaviparyaya (reversed quartan fever), which resides in both bones and bone marrow; its three varieties, each with a predominant involvement of one of the three dosas (2.73cd-74ab);⁵³ general pathophysiological features of the visamajvaras (2.74cd-76ab);⁵⁴ the features indicating subsidence (moksa) of a fever (2.76cd-78); 55 the features of relief from fever (2.79). 56

Chapter three (raktapittakāsanidāna) deals with: the aetiology and pathogenesis of raktapitta (3.1–4ab); ⁵⁷ the prodromes (3.4cd–7ab); ⁵⁸ the symptoms of its three types: moving upwards, moving downwards and moving in both directions (3.7cd–8ab); ⁵⁹ the upwards moving type is curable, because of the predominance of kapha; the general principles of its treatment (3.8cd–10); the downwards moving type is palliable, because vāta is the predominant dosa; the general principles of its treatment (3.11–12); the type moving in both directions, associated with kapha and vāta, is incurable; the reasons for its incurability (3.13–15); ⁶⁰ the dosas involved can be recognized in the same way as in bloodletting by means of phlebotomy; ⁶¹ the complications are described in the vilctivijūāna chapter; ⁶² cough (kāsa), a complication of raktapitta that may become fatal, will now be dealt with (3.16–17ab); cough is of five kinds: brought about by vāta, pitta, kapha, a traumatic lesion (kṣata), and kṣaya; ⁶³ if neglected, all these types lead to kṣaya; ⁶⁴ they are more serious in character in the mentioned order (3.17cd–18ab); ⁶⁵ the prodromes (3.18cd–19a); ⁶⁶ the pathogenesis; the explanation for the occurrence of different syndromes (3.19b–22ab); ⁶⁷ the symptomatology of cough

caused by vāta (3.22–24ab), ⁶⁸ pitta (3.24cd–25), ⁶⁹ kapha (3.26–27ab); ⁷⁰ the aetiology and symptomatology of cough caused by an injury inside the chest (3.27cd–32ab), ⁷¹ and of cough occurring in patients with rājayakṣman (3.32cd–35); ⁷² the prognosis of cough due to an injury and to kṣaya (3.36); ⁷³ cough due to one doṣa is curable; cough due to two doṣas and cough due to old age are amenable to palliative treatment (3.37); ⁷⁴ complications arising from neglect (3.38).

Chapter four (śvāsahidhmānidāna) deals with: the general aetiology of respiratory disorders (śvāsa) (4.1–2ab); 75 the five types of śvāsa: ksudraka, tamaka, chinnaśvāsa, mahāśvāsa, and ūrdhvaśvāsa (4.2cd); ⁷⁶ the pathogenesis (4.3-4ab); ⁷⁷ the prodromes (4.4cd-5a); ⁷⁸ the causes of ksudraśvāsa, which subsides spontaneously (4.5b-d); ⁷⁹ the pathogenesis, symptoms and degrees of curability of tamaka (4.6-10);80 this disease is called pratamaka when it is associated with fever and fainting (mūrchā) (4.11ab); 81 the symptomatology of chinnaśvāsa (4.11cd-13ab), 82 mahāśvāsa (4. 13cd-15)83 and ūrdhvaśvāsa (4.16-17);84 the prognosis of chinna-, mahā- and ūrdhvaśvāsa (4.18ab); 85 the aetiology, prodromes, number of types, pathogenesis and seat (samśraya) of hiccup (hidhmā) are the same as those of śvāsa; 86 five types are distinguished: bhaktodbhavā (produced by the ingestion of foods or dripks), ksudrā, yamalā, mahatī, and gambhīrā (4.18cd-19c); 87 the causes and symptoms of the annajā (= bhaktodbhavā) (4.19cd-21ab)⁸⁸ and ksudrā types (4.21cd-22);⁸⁹ the symptoms of the yamalā type, also called veginī and parināmavatī (4.23–25ab); 90 the symptoms of mahāhidhmā (4.25cd-27)⁹¹ and gambhīrā hidhmā (4.28-29ab);⁹² prognostic features (4.29b-30); 93 hiccup and respiratory disorders are more dangerous than other diseases; they appear at the approach of death (4.31).94

Chapter five (rājayaksmādinidāna) deals with: the characterization of rājayaksman as a disease that develops in the wake of many other diseases, and as leading itself to several other disorders; its synonyms: ksaya, śosa, rogarāj (5.1); 95 the explanation of these names (5.2-3); 96 the four causes of rajayaksman (5.4); 97 the pathogenesis (5.5-6); 98 the prodromes (5.7–13ab); 99 the eleven symptoms (5.13cd–15ab); 100 the complications (5.15cd-18); 101 the pathophysiological processes leading to the wasting character of the disease (5.19-22); 102 types of patients to be accepted or rejected (5.23); 103 the six kinds of disorders of the voice (svarabheda): caused by one dosa separately, all the dosas together, ksaya, and medas (fatty tissue) (5.24a-c); ¹⁰⁴ the symptoms of these six types (5.24d-27c); 105 the types caused by all the dosas and by medas should not be accepted for treatment (5.27cd); 106 anorexia (arocaka) arises from dosas located in tongue and heart; five types are distinguished: three caused by one dosa separately, one by all three dosas, and one by mental affliction (5.28); 107 the symptoms of these five types (5.29); 108 the five types of vomiting (chardi): three caused by one dosa, one by all three dosas, and one due to aversion to particular objects of the senses; 109 its pathogenesis (5.30); 110 the prodromes (5.31ab); 111 the symptoms of the five types (5.31cd-37ab); 112 cases of vomiting due to parasites (krmi), thirst, āma, and dauhrda are also caused by the dosas; 113 the symptoms of vomiting due to parasites (5.37cd-38c); 114 heart diseases (hrdroga) are of five types and arise from the same causes as gulma (5.

38d–39ab); ¹¹⁵ the symptoms of hrdroga caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas, and parasites (5.39cd–45ab); ¹¹⁶ the six types of morbid thirst (tṛṣṇā): caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, all three doṣas, deficiency of the rasa (rasakṣaya), and as a complication (upasarga) of other diseases (5.45cd–46a); ¹¹⁷ the general aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology (5.46b–49); ¹¹⁸ the symptoms of tṛṣṇā caused by vāta (5.50–51a), ¹¹⁹ pitta (5.51b–d), ¹²⁰ kapha (5.52–54a), ¹²¹ and all three doṣas (5.54b); ¹²² tṛṣṇā arising from āma is due to obstruction by ingested food and is associated with vāta and pitta (5.54cd); ¹²³ tṛṣṇā in someone who, exhausted by heat, rashly enjoys cold water, arises from pitta (5.55); ¹²⁴ tṛṣṇā brought about by the abuse of alcohol ¹²⁵ and an excess of fatty substances also arises from pitta; tṛṣṇā brought about by fatty, heavy, sour and salt foods arises from kapha (5.56); ¹²⁶ tṛṣṇā brought about by deficiency of the rasa displays the symptoms belonging to rasakṣaya (5.57ab); ¹²⁷ tṛṣṇā resulting from long-standing diseases such as śoṣa, meha and fever is known as the type arising from up-asarga (5.57cd–58). ¹²⁸

Chapter six (madātyayādinidāna) deals with: the ten properties of alcoholic drinks (madya); the opposite properties of ojas; the same properties as those found in alcoholic drinks, which produce disorders of the mind, are also present in poisonous substances, where they, due to their strong action, are lethal (6.1-2): 129 the symptoms of the first stage of intoxication (mada) (6.3-4a), 130 of the second stage and the stage intermediate between the second and third (6.4b-6); 131 the symptoms of the third stage (6.7); 132 the bad effects of the consumption of alcoholic drinks (6.8-11ab); 133 persons who do not easily get intoxicated and those liable to intoxication (6.11cd-13); 134 the four kinds of disorders caused by alcohol abuse (madātyaya): with predominance of vata, pitta, kapha, or all three dosas (6.14); the symptoms of these four disorders (6.15-20c); ¹³⁵ two disorders may arise due to resumption of drinking after a period of abstinence or starting to drink another type to which one is not accustomed: dhvamsaka and viksaya (6.20d-21); 136 the characteristic features of these two disorders (6.22-23ab); ¹³⁷ someone who stops drinking and regains self-control remains healthy (6.23cd-24ab); 138 persons liable to develop the disorders called mada, mürchā and saınnyāsa, more severe in the mentioned order; their pathogenesis (6.24cd-25); ¹³⁹ mada arises from each dosa separately, all three dosas together, blood, alcoholic drinks, and poisonous substances (6.26ab); the symptoms of these seven types (6.26cd-29); ¹⁴⁰ the diagnosis of these disorders should be based on the predominant presence of the symptoms of vata, etc., blood, etc. (6.30ab); the symptoms of murcha (fainting) due to vata, pitta, kapha, and all three dosas (6.30cd-35); 141 the dosas get appeased spontaneously in mada and mūrchā, which distinguishes these disorders from samnyāsa, which requires treatment (6.36); 142 the features of samnyāsa (6.37-39); 143 alcoholic drinks should be used in moderation (6.40); consumed after due consideration of one's strength, constitution, age, etc., an alcoholic drink is like amrta (6.41). 144

Chapter seven (arsasām nidānam) deals with: the etymology of arsas (haemorrhoid) (7. 1); the dosas corrupt the skin, muscular tissue and fatty tissue, causing fleshy sprouts

(māmsāńkura) to appear in the region of the apāna, which are called haemorrhoids (7. 2); 145 they are either congenital (sahotthāna) or produced after birth (janmottarotthāna), 146 dry (śuska) or exudative (srāvin) (7.3a-c); 147 the description of the ano-rectal region (guda) and its three folds (vali), valled pravāhinī, visarianī and samvaranī (7. 3d-5); ¹⁴⁸ the aetiology of congenital haemorrhoids, which are associated with all the dosas and therefore incurable, as all diseases deriving from one's parents (kulodbhava) (7.6–7); ¹⁴⁹ the characteristics of congenital haemorrhoids (7.8); ¹⁵⁰ the other type is of six varieties: brought about by one of the dosas separately, two dosas, all three dosas, or blood (7.9ab); ¹⁵¹ dry haemorrhoids are caused by vata and kapha, exudative ones by blood and pitta (7.9cd); ¹⁵² the general aetiology of haemorrhoids (7.10-15c); ¹⁵³ the prodromes (7.15cd-20); 154 the pathogenesis (7.21-22); 155 the general symptoms (7. 23-28ab); 156 the appearance and symptoms of haemorrhoids caused by vāta (7.28cd-34ab), ¹⁵⁷ pitta (7.34cd-37ab), ¹⁵⁸ kapha (7.37cd-42ab), ¹⁵⁹ all three dosas (7.42cd), ¹⁶⁰ and blood (7.43-45); ¹⁶¹ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomated ogy of udavarta, the major complication of haemorrhoids; this disorder may also arise in the absence of haemorrhoids (7.46-52); ¹⁶² the degrees of curability of haemorrhoids (7.53-55); ¹⁶³ growths resembling haemorrhoids which occur on the penis, etc., will be described later; growths of the same type may be present in the region of the navel (7.56); 164 the origin of warts (carmakīla); their appearance, etc., are dependent on the dosa involved (7.57-58); 165 a physician should make an effort to cure haemorrhoids, since they may lead to the disease called baddhagudodara (7.59). 166

Chapter eight (atīsāragrahanīdosanidāna) deals with: the six types of atīsāra (diarrhoea): caused by one dosa separately, all three dosas, fear (bhaya), and grief (śoka) (8.1a-c); ¹⁶⁷ the aetiology and pathogenesis of diarrhoea (8.1d-4c); ¹⁶⁸ the prodromes (8.4d-5c); 169 the symptoms of diarrhoea brought about by vata (8.5d-7), 170 pitta (8.8-9ab), 171 kapha (8.9b-11c), 172 all three dosas (8.11d), 173 fear and grief (8.12-13ab); 174 four varieties of diarrhoea: sāma and nirāmaka, sāsrj (accompanied by blood) 175 and nirasra (not accompanied by blood); the characteristics of sāma and nirāma diarrhoea¹⁷⁶ (8.13cd-15ab); grahanīdosa develops as a sequela of diarrhoea or independently (8.15cd-16ab); ¹⁷⁷ the main features of this disease (8.16cd-18); ¹⁷⁸ the four types: brought about by one dosa separately or three dosas together (8. 19ab); ¹⁷⁹ the prodromes (8.19cd-20); ¹⁸⁰ the general symptomatology (8.21); ¹⁸¹ the symptoms of grahanīdoşa due to vāta (8.22-25ab), 182 pitta (8.25cd-26ab), 183 kapha (8.26cd-29a), ¹⁸⁴ and all three dosas (8.29b); ¹⁸⁵ the three disorders of the digestive fire (visamāgni, etc.) 186 also belong to grahanīdosa (8.29cd-30ab); the eight mahārogas (severe diseases), which are difficult to overcome: vātavyādhi, aśmarī, kustha, meha, udara, bhagandara, arśāmsi, and grahanī (8.30c-f).

Chapter nine (mūtrāghātanidāna) deals with the following subjects: the urinary bladder (basti) and its head (bastiśiras), the penis, hips (kaṭī), testicles and ano-rectal region (pāyu) form an interconnected whole, located in the hollow of the gudāsthi (9.1);¹⁸⁷ the bladder, with its opening facing downwards, is filled from all sides by the subtle pores of the urine-carrying vessels;¹⁸⁸ the doṣas, getting entrance through

these vessels, bring about the twenty kinds of mūtrāghāta (retention of urine)¹⁸⁹ and twenty kinds of prameha, which are difficult to cure (9.2–3); the symptoms of mūtrakṛcchra due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and all the doṣas (9.4–5); ¹⁹⁰ the pathogenesis of aśmarī (vesical calculi) (9.6–7c); ¹⁹¹ the prodromes (9.7d–8); ¹⁹² the general symptoms (9.9–10); ¹⁹³ the symptoms of aśmarī due to vāta (9.11–12), ¹⁹⁴ pitta (9.13), ¹⁹⁵ and kapha ¹⁹⁶ (9.14); ¹⁹⁷ vesical calculi are more frequent in children and can easily be extracted in them (9.15); ¹⁹⁸ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of śūkrāśmarī, a disorder found in adults (9.16–18c); ¹⁹⁹ the nature and clinical features of śarkarā (gravel) (9.18d–19); ²⁰⁰ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of vātabasti (9.20–23ab), ²⁰¹ vātāṣṭhīlā (9.23cd–24), ²⁰² vātakuṇḍalikā (9.25–26c), ²⁰³ mūtrātīta (9.26d–27ab), ²⁰⁴ mūtrajaṭhara (9.27cd–29a), ²⁰⁵ mūtrotsaṅga (9.29–30), ²⁰⁶ mūtragranthi (9.31), ²⁰⁷ mūtraśukra (9.32–33ab), ²⁰⁸ viḍvɨghāta (9.33cd–34), ²⁰⁹ uṣṇavāta (9.35–36), ²¹⁰ mūtrakṣaya (9.37), ²¹¹ and mūtrasāda (9.38–39); ²¹² thus, the diseases arising when the flow of urine is obstructed have been described; those with an overproduction of urine will be dealt with in the next chapter (9.40).

Chapter ten (pramehanidāna) deals with the following subjects: out of the twenty types of prameha, ten arise from kapha, six from pitta, and four from vata (10.1a-c);²¹³ prameha is usually caused by foods and drinks which lead to an increase of fatty tissue, urine and kapha (10.1cd-3);²¹⁴ the pathogenesis (10.4-5);²¹⁵ patients with (pra)meha are curable, may be treated palliatively, or should be refused treatment, dependent on the main dosa involved, the samakriyatā or asamakriyatā (of dosa and affected dūsya or dūsyas), and the mahātyayatā (risks inherent in treatment) (10.6); 216 the common symptoms of all pramehas (10.7ab);²¹⁷ the combinations of dosas and dūsyas, even if these constituents are related to each other, give rise to various colours, etc., of the urine, which makes it possible to describe several types (10.7cd-8ab);²¹⁸ the ten types of prameha (arising from kapha) and the characteristics of the urine in these disorders: udakameha, ²¹⁹ ikṣumeha, ²²⁰ sāndrameha, surāmeha, piṣṭameha, sukrameha, sikatāmeha, sītameha, sanairmeha, and lālāmeha (10.8cd-13);²²¹ the six types (arising from pitta) and their characteristics: ksārameha, nīlameha, kālameha, hāridrameha, mañjisthāmeha, and raktameda (10.14-16ab); ²²² the four types (arising from vāta) and their characteristics: vasāmeha, majjāmeha, hastimeha, and madhumeha (10.16cd-18c); 223 the two varieties of madhumeha: with excitement of vata due to decline of bodily elements (dhātuksaya) and due to covering of the pathway of vāta by (the other) dosas (10.18d-19ab); 224 the characteristics of the second variety (10.19cd-20ab);²²⁵ all kinds of prameha develop, if neglected, into madhumeha (10.20cd); all cases of prameha in which the urine is sweet as honey are regarded as madhumeha (10.21); ²²⁶ the complications of prameha arising from kapha, pitta or vāta (10.22-24); 227 the ten piţikās (boils), which may develop in the regions where junctures and marmans are found and in fleshy parts, when prameha is neglected (10.25-26);²²⁸ the characteristics of nine of these ten types: śarāvikā, kacchapikā, iālinī, vinatā, ala jī, masūrikā, sarṣapikā, putrinī, and vidārikā; the tenth, vidradhi, will be described in the next chapter (10.27-34c);²²⁹ the first three, along with putrinī and vidārī, are hard to resist, because of their abundance of fatty tissue; the other ones, with a predominance of pitta, are resistable, because they arise from a small amount of fatty tissue (10.34cd-35); ²³⁰ the doṣa involved is dependent on the type of meha present (10.36ab); ²³¹ these piṭikās also occur without the presence of prameha, when the fatty tissue is corrupted, but their specific characteristics are not easily recognizable in such cases (10.36c-f); ²³² patients passing urine of a turmeric yellow or red colour should not be diagnosed as suffering from prameha, but from raktapitta, if the prodromes of prameha have not appeared (10.37); ²³³ the prodromes of prameha (10.38-39); ²³⁴ cases of prameha in which it is difficult to determine which is the main doṣa involved (10.40); ²³⁵ criteria for the determination of the degree of curability of prameha (10.41). ²³⁶

Chapter eleven (vidradhivrddhigulmanidana) deals with the following subjects: the aetiology and pathogenesis of abscesses (vidradhi); ²³⁷ six types are distinguished: arising from one dosa separately, all three dosas, blood, and a trauma (ksata) (11.1-3); ²³⁸ general features and locations of external (bahya) and internal (antara) abscesses (11.4-6a); ²³⁹ the characteristics of abscesses brought about by vata, pitta, kapha, and all the dosas collectively (11.6b-9ab);²⁴⁰ the features already mentioned enable a physician to determine whether the abscess is of the internal or external type (11.9cd); the characteristics of an abscess caused by blood; ²⁴¹ this abscess is usually of the external variety, but it is internal in women (11.10); the characteristics of an abscess of traumatic origin (11.11-12ab); ²⁴² the complications; these depend on the site of the abscess (11.12cd-16ab); ²⁴³ the āma (unripe), pakva (ripe) and vidagdha (overripe) stages in the formation of abscesses are similar to the corresponding stages of sopha (11.16cd); ²⁴⁴ abscesses above the umbilical region drain their contents by way of the mouth, those below the navel by way of the anus (11.17a-c); ²⁴⁵ the dosa(s) involved can be recognized by means of the exudate, in the same way as in ulcers (11.17d-18a); degrees of curability of abscesses (11.18-19ab); ²⁴⁶ abscesses of the breast in females (11.19cd-21ab); ²⁴⁷ the pathogenesis of vrddhi (enlargement of the scrotum); its seven types: arising from each dosa separately, blood, fatty tissue, urine, and the intestines; the last two are actually caused by vata (11.21cd-23);²⁴⁸ the symptoms of the first five types (11.24-26ab); ²⁴⁹ the causes and symptoms of vrddhi brought about by urine (11.26cd-27); ²⁵⁰ the causes, pathogenesis and symptoms of vrddhi brought about by the intestines; it resembles vrddhi due to vāta and is incurable (11.28-31); ²⁵¹ the eight types of gulma: caused by one dosa, a combination of two dosas, all three dosas, and a disorder (dosa) of artava in women (11.32-33ab); 252 the aetiology, pathogenesis and general appearance of gulma (11.33cd-38); ²⁵³ the aetiology, pathogenesis, appearance and symptomatology of gulma caused by vāta (11.39–44ab); ²⁵⁴ the symptoms of gulma caused by pitta (11.44cd-45),²⁵⁵ kapha (11.46-47ab),²⁵⁶ two dosas,²⁵⁷ and the three dosas; the last type is incurable (11.47cd-49a); ²⁵⁸ the aetiology and symptomatology of raktagulma, which occurs in women only and resembles pregnancy in some respects (11. 49-55); ²⁵⁹ the differences between gulma and vidradhi (11.56-57); ²⁶⁰ the differences between gulma located inside and outside the viscera (11.58-59); the characteristics of $\bar{a}n\bar{a}ha$ (11.60), 261 asth $\bar{i}l\bar{a}^{262}$ and pratyasth $\bar{i}l\bar{a}^{263}$ (11.61), $t\bar{u}n\bar{i}$ and prat $\bar{u}n\bar{i}$ (11.62); 264 the prodromes of gulma (11.63). 265

outward characteristics; their number is five; their names are: kakeruka, makeruka, sausurāda, sulūna, and leliha; the symptoms they produce (14.53–56).³⁵⁷

Chapter fifteen (vātavvādhinidāna) deals with the following subjects: the importance of vāta (15.1–3ab); 358 the actions of vāta, its five kinds, their seats, etc., have already been described in the dosavijñāna chapter; 359 the causes and characteristics of abnormalities due to vata will be described now (15.3cd-5ab); the general causes and features of excitement of vata (15.5cd-6); 360 the symptoms produced by excited vata localized in the pakvāśaya (15.7-8ab), 361 āmāśaya (15.8cd-9ab), 362 sense organs (15.9c), 363 skin (15.9d), 364 blood (15.10), 365 muscular and fatty tissues (15.11), 366 bones (15.12ab), 367 marrow (15.12cd), 368 semen (15.13a-c), 369 sirās 370 and snāyus 371 (15.13cd-14ab), junctures (15.14cd-15ab),³⁷² and whole body (15.15cd-16ab);³⁷³ the features of aksepaka (15.16cd-17ab), ³⁷⁴ apatantraka or apatana (15.17cd-21), ³⁷⁵ antarāyāma (15.22-24c), 376 bahirāyāma (15.24d-26), 377 vranāyāma (15.27-28ab); 378 a patient with aksepaka feels well again when the impulse (vega) has passed off (15.28cd);³⁷⁹ the features of hanusramsa (15.29-30),³⁸⁰ jihvāstambha (15.31),³⁸¹ ardita,³⁸² called ekāyāma³⁸³ by others (15.32-37ab), sirāgraha (15.37cd-38ab),³⁸⁴ ekāngaroga, also called paksavadha, 385 and sarvāngaroga 386 (15.38cd-41), 387 dandaka (15.42),³⁸⁸ avabāhuka (15.43),³⁸⁹ viśvācī (15.44),³⁹⁰ khañja³⁹¹ and pangu³⁹² (15.45), kalāyakhañja (15.46), ³⁹³ ūrustambha, ³⁹⁴ called ādhyavāta by others ³⁹⁵ (15. 47–51), ³⁹⁶ krostukaśīrsa (15.52), ³⁹⁷ vātakantaka (15.53), ³⁹⁸ gṛdhrasī (15.54), ³⁹⁹ khallī (15.55ab), 400 pādaharsa (15.55cd-56ab), 401 and pādadāha (15.56cd-57), 402

Chapter sixteen (vātaśonitanidāna) deals with: the aetiology, pathogenesis and some general features of the disease called ādhyaroga, khuda, vātabalāsa, or vātaśonita (16.1-5ab); ⁴⁰³ the prodromes (16.5d-7ab); ⁴⁰⁴ the general features (16.7cd-8ab); ⁴⁰⁵ the symptoms of the uttana and gambhīra types (16.8cd-11); 406 the symptoms of vātaśonita with predominance of vāta, blood, pitta, kapha, two dosas, and all three dosas (16.12-16);⁴⁰⁷ degrees of curability (16.17);⁴⁰⁸ the general features of vata when covered (avrta) by other bodily constituents (16.18); 409 the causes of corruption of prana and the disorders resulting from this condition (16.19-20); 410 the same with respect to udāna (16.21-22), 411 vyāna (16.23-25ab), 412 samāna (16.25cd-26),413 and apāna (16.27-28);414 the characteristic signs of vāta when it is sāma and nirāma (16.29-30); the symptoms appearing when vāta is covered by pitta (16. 31cd-32ab), 415 kapha (16.32cd-33ab), 416 blood (16.33cd-34ab), 417 muscular tissue (16.34cd-35ab), 418 fatty tissue (16.35cd-36ab), 419 osseous tissue (16.36cd-37ab), 420 bone marrow (16.37cd-38ab), 421 semen (16.38cd), 422 ingested food (16.39ab), 423 urine⁴²⁴ or faeces⁴²⁵ (16.39cd–41ab), and all the tissues together (16.41cd–42ab); the symptoms appearing when prana, udana, etc., are covered by pitta (16.42cd-45) or kapha (16.46–49ab); 426 these are the twenty-two kinds of covering (avarana) of vāta (16.49cd); 427 prāna and the other kinds of vāta may cover each other; these coverings are twenty in number (16.50); the symptoms appearing when udana is covered by prāna and prāna by udāna (16.51-52ab);⁴²⁸ the other types of āvarana should be diagnosed by observing the signs indicating increase or decrease of the

actions of the different kinds of vāta (16.52cd-53ab);⁴²⁹ all kinds of combinations of specific types of āvaraṇa may occur, in several gradations; all these syndromes should be diagnosed carefully (16.53cd-56ab);⁴³⁰ prāṇa is specifically connected with life and udāna with strength (16.56cd-57ab);⁴³¹ unknown types of āvaraṇa, and those known which have persisted for more than a year, are either difficult to cure or incurable (16.57cd-58ab);⁴³² the complications that occur when āvaraṇa is neglected (16.58cd-59), ⁴³³

Chapter 4 Cikitsitasthāna

Chapter one (jvaracikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of fevers (jvara).

The subjects dealt with are: reducing measures (langhana) (1.1-3);² emetics (1.4-8); the importance of reducing measures (1.9-10); indications for the drinking of warm water (1.11-13); 4 contra-indications (1.14-15ab); 5 the recipe of a cooled down decoction (1.15cd-16ab); everything that is opposed to pitta (pittaviruddha) should be avoided in fevers (1.16cd-17); drugs should not be prescribed in the immature (āma) stage of a fever (1.18-19ab); 7 indications for sudation (1.19cd-21ab); 8 the order of particular types of treatment in fevers (1.21cd-22ab); 9 types of fever which do not require reducing, but, instead, appeasing (samana) measures (1.22cd-23ab); 10 signs indicating whether or not the reducing measures have been adequate (1.23cd-24ab); 11 next, after proper reducing treatment, a medicated peyā should be administered (1.24cd-29); 12 cases in which, instead of a peya, a yavagū is more suitable (1.30-34ab); a medicated broth or yūsa may also be prescribed (1.34cd); ¹³ alternative preparations when a peyā is contra-indicated (1.35-38); when the dosas have become free from āma, a kasāya may be administered (1.39); 14 such a kasāya should be bitter when pitta predominates, and astringent in fevers with predominance of kapha (1.40-41); a number of opinions on the proper time for the prescription of drugs (1.42); 15 contra-indications (1.43-44ab); 16 indications (1.44cd-45ab); 17 recipes for kasāyas (1.45cd-55ab); 18 the formula of drāksādiphānta (1.55cd-58); 19 more recipes for kasāyas (1.59-69); after digestion of the drugs, one should prescribe a peyā, etc., or a yūsa (1.70-72ab); suitable foods and drinks, medicated broths (1.72cd-81ab); next, after the kasāyas, and after a suitable regimen for ten days, a medicated ghee should be prescribed; indications²⁰ and contra-indications;²¹ the importance of ghee and its actions (1.81cd-89);²² pippalyādighrta (1.90-91);²³ various other ghees (1.92-94);²⁴ after digestion of the ghee, the patient should eat a mixture of boiled rice and meat broth (māmsarasaudana) (1.95); yūsas are beneficial in fevers by kapha and pitta, not in those by vāta (1.96–97ab); rules for purificatory treatment when the fever does not subside, in spite of treatment (1.97cd-105ab);²⁵ weakened patients, not fit for purificatory treatment, should drink medicated milk or a nirūha should be administered (1.105cd-106ab);²⁶ recipes for medicated milk preparations (1.106cd-115);²⁷ enemas (1.116-125ab);²⁸ errhines (1.125cd-126);²⁹ dhūmas and gandūsas (1.127-128);³⁰ applications on the skin (abhyanga, pariseka, etc.) and for the eyes (1.129-142);³¹ various therapeutic measures (1.143-147);³² restoration of the equilibrium of the dosas (in samnipāta įvara) (1.148);³³ the dangerous swelling at the root of the ear, developing at the end of a samnipātajvara; its treatment (1.149-150); 34

phlebotomy at the arms is necessary if the fever does not subside (1.151); ³⁵ the described treatments should also be used in cases of viṣamajvara (1.152); recipes and various therapeutic measures to be adopted in cases of viṣamajvara (1.153–167); ³⁶ the reatment of exogenous fevers (1.168–173); ³⁷ things to be avoided by fever patients (1.174–175); ³⁸ things beneficial to patients suffering from fever (1.177). ³⁹

Chapter two (raktapittacikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of haemorrhagic syndromes (raktapitta).

The subjects dealt with are: the degrees of curability of raktapitta (2.1-3ab);⁴⁰ indications for either langhana or brmhana measures, followed by either sodhana or śamana (2.3cd-7);41 in cases of upwards moving raktapitta, a tarpana should be prescribed, in downwards moving raktapitta a peyā (2.8ab); 42 indications and contra-indications for stopping the bleeding (2.8cd-9ab);⁴³ purgatives (2.9cd-11);⁴⁴ emetics (2.12-13a); 45 after purification (with purgatives or emetics), a mantha or pevā should be prescribed (2.13b-d);⁴⁶ recipes for manthas and peyās (2.14-18);⁴⁷ recipes for a yavāgū and a broth (māmsarasa) (2.19-20);⁴⁸ grains, pulses and vegetables to be recommended (2.21);⁴⁹ drinks (2.22);⁵⁰ meat preparations (2.23-24ab);⁵¹ anything that may give rise to raktapitta should be avoided (2.24cd); 52 recipes, mostly consisting of various types of kasāya (2.25–35ab); 53 medicated milk preparations (2. 35cd-40ab); ⁵⁴ the treatments recommended in raktātisāra and bleeding haemorrhoids may also be adopted (2.40cd); 55 after using medicated milk preparations, the patient should drink milk (2.4lab);⁵⁶ the treatment with kasayas should be followed by the administration of medicated ghees (2.4lcd); ⁵⁷ the recipes of vrsaghrta (2.42-44ab), ⁵⁸ palāśaghrta,⁵⁹ and trāyamāṇāghrta⁶⁰ (2.44cd-45ab);⁶¹ four electuaries containing a caustic (4.45cd-46), 62 bleeding from the ano-rectal region requires treatment with enemas (2.47ab);⁶³ errhines to be used in nose bleeds (2.47cd-49ab);⁶⁴ applications on the skin (pradeha, abhyanga, etc.) (2.49cd);65 the therapeutic measures against fever by pitta and against ksataksīna are also beneficial in cases of raktapitta (2.50).⁶⁶

Chapter three (kāsacikitsita) is about the treatment of cough (kāsa).

The subjects dealt with are: general measures to be adopted in the treatment of kāsa due to vāta (3.1–3ab);⁶⁷ specific prescriptions (3.3cd–25ab);⁶⁸ prescriptions against kāsa due to pitta (3.25cd–40),⁶⁹ kapha (3.41–55),⁷⁰ vāta and kapha (3.56–57ab);⁷¹ prescriptions against kāsa in general (3.57cd–58);⁷² the formulae of kaṇṭakārīghṛta (3.59–63ab)⁷³ and vāṭa in combination with kapha (3.68–69); tamaka, when appearing during kāsa caused by kapha, should be treated like kāsa due to pitta (3.70);⁷⁵ the treatment of kāsa due to a combination of two doṣas (3.71–72);⁷⁶ the treatment of kāsa due to uraḥkṣata (3.73–94ab);⁷⁷ the formulae of amṛṭaprā-faghṛta (3.94cd–101),⁷⁸ śvadaṇṣṭrādighṛta (3.102–105),⁷⁹ madhukādighṛta (3.106–107), dhātryādighṛta (3.108–110ab); special rules regarding the use of ghees (3.110cd–113); the formulae of kūṣmāṇḍakarasāyana, devised by the Aśvins (3.114–118ab),⁸⁰ nāgabalārasāyana (3.118cd–120ab),⁸¹ nāgabalāsarpis (3.120cd–125); some rules for the treatment of kṣatakāsa (3.126); the formulae of agastyaharītakī, devised

by Agastya (3.127–132), ⁸² vasiṣṭhaharītakī, devised by Vasiṣṭha (3.133–141ab), ⁸³ ṣāḍavacūrṇa (3.141cd–144ab), and another ṣāḍava (3.144cd–146), ⁸⁴ the treatments for (rāja)yakṣman are also useful in kṣatakāsa (3.147ab); dhūmas to be employed when the injury (kṣata) in the chest, occurring in cases of kṣatakāsa, has healed, but kapha has increased (3.147cd–151ab); ⁸⁵ the treatment of kāsa due to kṣaya (3.151cd–158); ⁸⁶ the formulae of cavikādighṭta (3.159–161), kāsamardādighṭta (3.162–163), ⁸⁷ vṛṣādighṛta (3.164); two more medicated ghees (3.165–166ab); ⁸⁸ the actions of these ghees (3.166cd–167ab); ⁸⁹ the formula of harītakīleha (3.167cd–169ab); ⁹⁰ electuaries (3.169cd–171); ⁹¹ some cūṛṇas (3.172–173); ⁹² various preparations (3.174–177); ⁹³ prescriptions aġainst kṣatakāsa and (rāja)yakṣman that can also be used against kṣayakāsa (3.178–179); ⁹⁴ a dreadful disease arising from all the dosas (3.180). ⁹⁵

Chapter four (śvāsahidhmācikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of respiratory disorders (śvāsa) and hiccup (hidhmā).

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology of śvāsa and hidhmā are similar; both disorders should therefore be treated in the same way; 96 sudation should be applied first, followed by oleation; these measures liquefy kapha, which then goes to the kostha, whence it can be expelled; vāta is normalized by the same measures (4.1-3ab); 97 emesis⁹⁸ and purgation⁹⁹ (4.3cd-9); fumigation and the inhalation of medicinal smoke (dhūmapāna) (4.10-14ab); 100 the importance of sudation (4.14cd-16a); 101 āma, if present, should be treated properly (4.16b); 102 causes of an increase of vāta, its effects, and the treatment to be employed (4.16cd-18); 103 particular types of śvāsa and hidhmā should be treated with sweet and oleaginous substances which are cold in potency (4.19); 104 beneficial broths and yūsas (4.20-22), 105 peyās (4.23), 106 kasāyas (4.24-25ab), 107 articles of diet (4.25cd-28ab); 108 useful drinks when the patient is thirsty (4.28cd-29ab); ¹⁰⁹ a medicated takra (4.29cd-30); other drinks (4.31-32); ¹¹⁰ recipes against śvāsa and hidhmā due to a combination of two dosas (4.33-36); electuaries (4.37-43ab);¹¹¹ the formula of jīvantyādicūrņa (4.43cd-45);¹¹² another cūrna (4.46); 113 errhines (4.47-50); 114 medicated ghees (4.51-52ab); 115 tejovatyādighrta (4.52cd-55ab); 116 dhānvantara-, vrsa-, dādhika-, and hapusādighrta are also useful (4.55cd-56ab); 117 treatments causing mental agitation (4.56cd-57ab); 118 any treatment subduing kapha and vata may be adopted (4.57cd-58ab); 119 measures that are samana and brmhana are preferable to those that are karsana (4.58cd-59); 120 kasa, śvāsa, ksaya, chardi and hidhmā may all be treated in the same way (4.60).

Chapter five (rājayakṣmādicikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of rājayakṣman and associated disorders.

The subjects dealt with are: emesis and purgation in cases of rājayakṣman (5.1–4ab); ¹²¹ beneficial articles of diet, in particular various kinds of meat (5.4cd–11); ¹²² alcoholic and other fluids (5.12–14ab); ¹²³ medicated ghees (5.14cd–21); ¹²⁴ ṣaṭpalaghṛta (5.22–23); ¹²⁵ other medicated ghees (5.24–25ab); māṇṣṣaṣarpis (5.25cd–27); elādisarpirguda (5.28–32); the sarpirguda recipes employed in the treatment of kṣata(kāṣa) may also be used against kṣaya (= rājayakṣman) (5.33ab); a recipe for a cūrṇa or electuary (5.33cd–34); ¹²⁶ the treatment of svaraṣāda (the group of

disorders of the voice) (5.35–46); ¹²⁷ various prescriptions against arocaka (loss of appetite) (5.47–53); ¹²⁸ elādika- or samaśarkaracūrṇa (5.54–55ab); ¹²⁹ yavāṇyādicūṇa (5.55cd–58ab); ¹³⁰ tālīsādicūṇa (5.58cd–60); ¹³¹ the treatment of praseka (excessive salivation) (5.61–63); ¹³² pīṇasa (nasal catarrh) and vamathu (vomiting) should be treated in the same way as praseka (5.64ab); ¹³³ specific treatments for pīṇasa (5.64cd–65); ¹³⁴ the treatment of piercing pains (śūla) in head, shoulders, and the sides of the chest (5.66–72ab); ¹³⁵ the treatment of a diarrhoea that is accompanied by mucous matter (piccha) (5.72cd–73ab); ¹³⁶ the importance of preserving the faeces in a patient with rājayakṣman whose dhātus are depleted (5.73cd–74ab); measures to counteract progress of the disease and to nourish the dhātus (5.74cd–82ab); ¹³⁷ general beneficial measures (5.82cd–84). ¹³⁸

Chapter six (chardihṛdrogatṛṣṇācikitsita) is about the treatment of vomiting (chardi), heart diseases (hṛdroga), and morbid thirst (trṣṇā).

The subjects dealt with are: reducing measures (langhana) and emesis (6.1-2ab). purgative and appeasing (samana) measures (6.2cd-3) in chardi; ¹³⁹ general therapeutic measures (6.4-6); ¹⁴⁰ the treatment of chardi due to vāta (6.7-10ab), ¹⁴¹ pitta (6. 10cd-17ab), 142 kapha (6.17cd-21), 143 and other causes (6.22-23ab); 144 chardi leads to excitement of vata, due to depletion of the bodily elements (dhatu); for that reason, stambhana and brinhana measures should be adopted (6.23); 145 persistent vomiting should be treated with sarpirguda recipes, 146 broths, medicated ghees, such as kalyanaka-, 147 tryūsana- 148 and jī vanaghrta, 149 medicated milk preparations, and electuaries (6.24); ¹⁵⁰ the treatment of hrdroga due to vata (6.25cd-43), ¹⁵¹ pitta (6.44-49ab), ¹⁵² and kapha (6.49cd-55); 153 the treatment of piercing pain (sūla) arising after ingesting food, during digestion, and after digestion (6.56-58ab); 154 the treatment of excited vāta located in the āmāśaya (6.58cd-59ab); 155 the treatment of hrdroga due to parasites (6.59cd); ¹⁵⁶ the general treatment of trsnā (6.60-67); ¹⁵⁷ the treatment of trsnā due to vāta (6.68), ¹⁵⁸ pitta (6.69-72ab), ¹⁵⁹ kapha (6.72cd-74), ¹⁶⁰ āma (6.75), ¹⁶¹ fasting (annātyaya) (6.76ab), ¹⁶² fatigue (6.76cd), ¹⁶³ exposure to the heat of the sun (6.77cd– 78ab), ¹⁶⁴ alcoholic drinks (6.78cd), ¹⁶⁵ oleation (6.79), ¹⁶⁶ a high-fat meal (6.80ab), ¹⁶⁷ heavy foods (6.80cd), 168 and kṣaya (6.81ab); 169 the treatment of thirst in lean, weak and dry patients (6.81cd), ¹⁷⁰ in those with upwards moving vata (6.82ab), those suffering from long-standing diseases (rogopasarga) (6.82cd-83ab), and those who are emaciated by earlier diseases (6.83cd-85). 171

Chapter seven (madātyayādicikitsita) is concerned with alcohol abuse (madātyaya), the disorders caused by it, and some related syndromes.

The subjects dealt with are: the dosa to be treated first in cases of madātyaya (7.1–2ab); ¹⁷² a disease caused by the improper use of a particular alcoholic drink is relieved by that same drink (7.2cd–3ab); ¹⁷³ since alcoholic drinks are similar to poisons, another poison is required in counteracting their effects (7.3cd–4ab); ¹⁷⁴ the pathogenesis of intoxication (mada) and its accompanying symptoms; ¹⁷⁵ the proper circumstances for alleviating these complaints by the same drink that caused them (7.4cd–7); ¹⁷⁶ the explanation of this effect (7.8–9); ¹⁷⁷ pānātyaya (= madātyaya) should be treated dur-

ing seven or eight days; the reason for this (7.10-11); the treatment of madatyaya due to vāta (7.12–19ab), ¹⁷⁸ pitta, combinations of pitta and kapha, vāta, or blood (7.19cd– 33ab), ¹⁷⁹ and kapha (7.33cd-43ab); ¹⁸⁰ the treatment of the ten varieties of (madātyaya due to) samnipāta (7.43cd-44ab); 181 a pānaka against all types of madātyava (7.44cd-46ab); ¹⁸² in refractory cases of madatyaya, milk is beneficial, because its properties are similar to those of o jas and opposite to those of alcohol; after this treatment with milk, the patient should consume only small quantities of alcoholic drinks, in order to prevent the development of viksaya and dhyamsaka (7.47cd-51); 183 the treatment of these two disorders (7.52); 184 the proper way of enjoying alcoholic drinks does not result in disease (7.53); ¹⁸⁵ a eulogy of alcoholic beverages (7.54-67); ¹⁸⁶ diseases arising from medas, vāta and kapha do not occur in those drinking judiciously (7.68); alcoholic drinks are to be avoided in particular diseases, with the exception of those drinks which are prepared from various drugs (7.69); examples of articles of diet and drugs to be taken along with some alcoholic beverage (7.70-71); medical interventions that can better be endured after drinking (7.72); ¹⁸⁷ the advantages of drinking judiciously (7.73–74); ¹⁸⁸ the correct practice of consuming alcohol for those who are wealthy (7. 75–93); ¹⁸⁹ a self-possessed person should stop drinking before his vision and mind are affected (7.94); rules to be observed regarding drinking by those with a constitution dominated by vāta, pitta or kapha (7.95–99); ¹⁹⁰ the treatment of mada and mūrchāya (7.100-109); ¹⁹¹ the treatment of samnyāsa (7.110-115). ¹⁹²

Chapter eight (arśasām cikitsitam) is about the treatment of haemorrhoids (arśāmsi).

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of haemorrhoids with caustics or by means of cauterization; after-treatment (8.1-9); 193 the signs of proper treatment (8,10); ¹⁹⁴ the treatment required when piercing pains (śūla) occur in the region of the bladder (8.11), 195 or problems arise in the elimination of faeces or urine (8.12-14ab); ¹⁹⁶ the treatment of haemorrhoids when caustics cannot be applied and cauterization is impracticable (8.14cd-17); ¹⁹⁷ prescriptions (8.18-28ab); ¹⁹⁸ bloodletting (8.28cd-30ab); 199 treatment with medicated milk (8.30cd-31ab) and takra or dadhi (8.31cd-49);²⁰⁰ medicated drinks, peyās, etc. (8.50-51);²⁰¹ the mentioned treatments are suitable to patients with loose bowels (bhinnaśakrt) (8.52a);²⁰² the treatment of patients with hard bowels (gadhavarcas) (8.52b-55ab); ²⁰³ prescriptions (8.55cd-62ab); ²⁰⁴ vardhamānapippalī (8.62cd-63ab); a recipe (8.63cd-64ab); the formulae of abhayārista (8.64cd-69)²⁰⁵ and durālabhārista (8.70-71); ²⁰⁶ medicated ghees (8.72-79ab); ²⁰⁷ beneficial articles of diet (8.79cd-87ab); ²⁰⁸ signs indicating alleviation (8.87cd-88ab); treatment with enemas (8.88cd-94ab); ²⁰⁹ the treatment of haemorrhoids arising from blood (raktārśas) and associated with either vāta or kapha (8.94cd--04ab);²¹⁰ the formulae of two kinds of kutajāvaleha (8.104cd-112ab);²¹¹ prescriptions against haemorrhoids due to blood (8.112cd-120) and due to blood and vāta (8.121); prescriptions against bleeding haemorrhoids (8.122-125ab);²¹² a picchābasti (8.125cd-129ab);²¹³ an anuvāsana (8.129cd-130ab);²¹⁴ a medicated ghee (8.130cd-133);²¹⁵ general measures (8.134);²¹⁶ the treatment of udavarta (8.135-140ab);²¹⁷ the formula of kalvānakaksāra (8.140cd-143); all the treatments prescribed against haemorrhoids in patients with hard bowels should be employed (8.144ab); prescriptions (8.144cd-161); bhallātaka is the best drug for dry, ²¹⁸ the bark of vatsaka for moist haemorrhoids; ²¹⁹ kālaśeya (buttermilk) is to be recommended in all types and in all seasons (8.162); general rules (8.163); ²²⁰ haemorrhoids, diarrhoea and grahaṇī are related as to their aetiology; these disorders occur in persons with a subdued digestive fire; for that reason it is imperative to protect this fire carefully (8.164). ²²¹

Chapter nine (atīsāracikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of diarrhoea (atīsāra).

The subjects dealt with are: reducing measures (langhana) as the method of choice in the intial stage of diarrhoea, even when it arises from vata (9.1); 222 exceptions to this general rule (9.2ab); the treatment of āmātīsāra due to vāta (9.2cd-16ab); 223 the treatment of the pakva type (9.16cd-24); ²²⁴ the treatment of pravāhikā (9.25); ²²⁵ the formula of aparājitakhala, to be employed against bimbiśi (= pravāhikā) (9.26-28); prescriptions against disorders caused by faecal depletion (varcahksaya) (9.29-35ab)²²⁶ and obstruction of vāta (9.35cd-37ab);²²⁷ the treatment of the āma and nirāma types of atīsāra due to vāta; the treatment of pravāhikā and nihsāraka²²⁸ (9.37cd-48ab); the treatment of gudabhramsa (prolapse of the rectum) (9.48cd-54): ²²⁹ the treatment of atīsāra due to pitta (9.55-72ab); ²³⁰ a picchābasti against atīsāra due to pitta (9.72cd-76);²³¹ prescriptions against all types of diarrhoea (9.77);²³² putapāka recipes (9.78– 81); ²³³ the treatment of atīsāra with loss of blood (raktātīsāra) (9.82–102); ²³⁴ the treatment of atīsāra arising from kapha (9.103-110ab); ²³⁵ the formulae of kapitthāstakacūrna (9.110cd-113ab)²³⁶ and dādimāstakacūrna (9.113cd-115),²³⁷ to be employed in kaphātīsāra; more prescriptions against kaphātīsāra (9.116–119ab)²³⁸ and kaphātīsāra complicated by excitement of vata (9.119cd-122);²³⁹ the treatment of atīsāra caused by fear and grief (9.123); the signs indicating recovery from atīsāra (9.124). 240

Chapter ten (grahaṇīdoṣacikitsita) is about the treatment of grahaṇīdoṣa and some related disorders.

The subjects dealt with are: grahaṇī doṣa should be treated in the same way as ajīrṇa (10.1ab); the āma present should be made mature by the treatments described (in the chapter) on atīsāra (10.1cd); prescriptions (10.2); ²⁴¹ the treatment to be adopted when āma is present (10.3); ²⁴² the reasons for treating grahaṇīdoṣa with takra (10.4-5); ²⁴³ prescriptions, ²⁴⁴ in particular against grahaṇīdoṣa due to vāta (10.6-32ab), ²⁴⁵ pitta (10. 32cd-44), ²⁴⁶ kapha (10.45-56ab); ²⁴⁷ prescriptions stimulating the digestive fire (10. 56cd-65ab); ²⁴⁸ pañcakarınan therapy is indicated in grahaṇīdoṣa due to all three doṣas (10.65cd); ²⁴⁹ more prescriptions stimulating the digestive fire (10.66-69ab); ²⁵⁰ a prescription that brings the samāna back to its normal pathway and thus activates the digestive fire (10.69cd-71ab); ²⁵¹ the treatment of hard bowels (10.71cd-72ab); ²⁵² the treatment of weakness of the digestive fire due to various causes (10.72cd-78); ²⁵³ the importance of a balanced digestive fire (10.79-80); ²⁵⁴ the pathogenesis and symptomatology of atyagni (hyperactivity of the digestive fire) (10.81-83ab); ²⁵⁵ the treatment of this condition (10.83cd-90); ²⁵⁶ the digestive fire digests (pacati) the food; in the absence of food, it digests the doṣas; when the doṣas have decreased, it digests the dhātus;

when these have decreased, life is cut short (10.91); for these reasons, the fire should always be protected carefully (10.92-93). ²⁵⁷

Chapter eleven (mūtrāghātacikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of mūtrāghāta and some related disorders.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of mūtrāghāta due to vāta (11.1–5ab), ²⁵⁸ pitta (11.5cd–8), ²⁵⁹ kapha (11.9–15ab), ²⁶⁰ and all three doṣas collectively; the treatment of aśmarī (vesical calculus) of recent origin and of vātabasti, etc. (11.15cd–16ab); ²⁶¹ generalities about the therapy of aśmarī (11.16cd–17); ²⁶² the treatment of aśmarī due to vāta (11.18–21), ²⁶³ pitta (11.22–24)²⁶⁴ and kapha (11.25–27ab); ²⁶⁵ the treatment of śarkarā (gravel) and aśmarī in general (11.27cd–34ab); ²⁶⁶ prescriptions against various types of mūtrāghāta (11.34cd–41c); ²⁶⁷ the treatment of śukrāśmarī (11.41cd–43ab); ²⁶⁸ the surgical removal of aśmarī (11.43cd–55ab); ²⁶⁹ after-treatment (11.55cd–62); ²⁷⁰ eight places to be avoided when using sharp instruments: the (channels) carrying urine and semen, the urinary bladder, the testicles, the raphe (sevanī), the ano-rectal region, the urethra (mūtrapraseka), and the vagina (11.63). ²⁷¹

Chapter twelve (pramehacikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of prameha and the pramehapitikās.

The subjects dealt with are: purificatory therapy in prameha (12.1-3); ²⁷² cases requiring appeasing (samana) instead of purificatory (sodhana) measures (12.4-7ab);²⁷³ the treatment of prameha with predominance of kapha (12.7c-f), ²⁷⁴ pitta (12.8), ²⁷⁵ vāta (12.9-10ab); ²⁷⁶ prescriptions for prameha in general (12.10cd-15); ²⁷⁷ a prescription for prameha due to kapha and pitta (12.16–17ab); ²⁷⁸ a medicated oil, ghee, or mixture of oil and ghee for prameha due to vata and kapha, pitta, or a combination of all three dosas (12.17cd-19ab);²⁷⁹ the formulae of dhānvantaraghrta (12.19cd-24),²⁸⁰ rodhrāsava (12.25-28)²⁸¹ and ayaskrti (12.29-32);²⁸² general measures that are beneficial in prameha (12.33); ²⁸³ a śilodbhava (= śilā jatu) preparation (12.34–36ab); alternative treatments for patients who cannot afford to pay a physician (12.36cd-37);²⁸⁴ the treatment of emaciated patients (12.38ab); pramehapitikās should be treated in the same way as sopha when they are immature, in the same way as vranas when they are mature (12.38-39a); ²⁸⁵ the treatment of these pitikas in their prodromal stage (12.39b-40ab); ²⁸⁶ the general treatment of pramehapitikās (12.40cd-43ab); ²⁸⁷ a patient with madhumeha, rejected by the physicians, should take silā jatu as a means that may lead to recovery (12.43cd-44). 288

Chapter thirteen (vidradhivrddhicikitsita) is about the treatment of abscesses (vidradhi) and enlargement of the scrotum (vrddhi).

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of vidradhi in general; ²⁸⁹the āma (immature) type should be treated with repeated bloodletting, like a case of śopha; the pakva (mature) type should be managed like a vrana (13.1); ²⁹⁰ the treatment of vidradhi due to vāta (13.2–3), ²⁹¹ pitta (13.4–5), ²⁹² kapha (13.5d–7ab); ²⁹³ abscesses due to blood and those of the āgantu type require the same treatment as those due to pitta (13.7cd); ²⁹⁴ the treatment of immature (apakva) internal abscesses (13.8–10); ²⁹⁵ three formulae

(13.11–17);²⁹⁶ bloodletting (13.18ab);²⁹⁷ the treatment of maturing and mature internal abscesses (13.18cd–23);²⁹⁸ after-treatment (13.24);²⁹⁹ vidradhi requires the same treatment as gulma (13.25ab);³⁰⁰ all types of vidradhi may be treated with guggulu or śilā jatu, to which appropriate kaṣāyas have to be added (13.25cd–26ab);³⁰¹ maturation (pāka, i.e., suppuration) should be prevented (13.26cd–27ab);³⁰² abscesses in patients with prameha should be treated by the methods described for that disease (13.27cd); the treatment of mammary abscesses (stanavidradhi) (13.28–29ab);³⁰³ the treatment of vrddhi³⁰⁴ due to vāta (13.29cd–31),³⁰⁵ pitta³⁰⁶ and blood ³⁰⁷ (13.32), kapha (13.33–35ab),³⁰⁸ medas (fatty tissue) (13.35cd–38),³⁰⁹ urine (13.39–40ab),³¹⁰ and intestine (40b–d);³¹¹ the formula of sukumāraghrta (13.41–47);³¹² cauterization (13.48–51).³¹³

Chapter fourteen (gulmacikitsita) is about the treatment of gulma.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of gulma due to vāta (14.1-10);³¹⁴ the formulae of hapusādighrta (14.11-13ab), 315 dādhikaghrta (14.13cd-21ab), 316 and tryūsanādighrta (14.21cd-22ab); 317 other medicated ghees (14.22cd-27ab); 318 the treatment of gulma due to vata and kapha (14.27cd-31ab);³¹⁹ the formulae of hirigvādicūrna (14.31cd-33), 320 vaisvānaracūrna (14.34), 321 another cūrna (14.35), śārdūlacūrna (14.36), 322 another cūrna (14.37); recipes to be employed in gulma due to vāta (14.38-54);³²³ the formula of nīlinīghrta (14.55-58);³²⁴ articles of diet that are beneficial in cases of gulma due to vata (14.59-60); 325 the treatment of gulma due to pitta (14.61-75)³²⁶ and kapha (14.76-79); ³²⁷ the formula of bhallātakaghrta (14.80-83ab); 328 sudation and oleation in cases of gulma (14.83cd-84); 329 the surgical treatment of gulma due to kapha (14.85–89ab);³³⁰ miśrakasneha, a preparation that is useful in all cases of gulma (14.89cd-91ab);³³¹ nīlinīghrta, sukumāraghrta, and medicated ghees described in the chapter on udara, may also be employed (14.91cd-92ab); ³³² the formula of dantīharītakyavaleha (14.92cd-97); ³³³ purgatives (14.98–99);³³⁴ nirūhas (14.100ab); ³³⁵ treatment with caustics, aristas, and cauterization (14.100cd-102); 336 the formula of ksārāgada (14.103-107ab); 337 caustics expel kapha (14.107cd-108ab); the treatment of patients with a sluggish digestive fire and loss of appetite (14,108cd-109ab); beneficial foods and drinks (14,109cd-113); 338 indications for cautery; the procedure to be followed in gulma due to kapha (14.114-118ab); the treatment of gulma due to a combination of dosas (14.118cd-119ab);³³⁹ the treatment of raktagulma (14.119cd-130). 340

Chapter fifteen is concerned with the treatment of udara (disorders resulting in enlargement of the abdomen).

The subjects dealt with are: the necessity of regular purgation for patients suffering from udara; the reason is that the pathways of the channels (srotomārga) are obstructed by an excessive accumulation of doṣas (15.1); ³⁴¹ purgative prescriptions (15.2–3); ³⁴² medicated ghees for those who are dry and full of vāta (15.4–8); ³⁴³ after lubrication with these ghees, the physician should prescribe purgatives (15.9); ³⁴⁴ a purgative cūrṇa; the regimen that should follow it (15.10–12); ³⁴⁵ another cūrṇa (15.13); ³⁴⁶ the purgative called nārāyaṇacūrṇa (15.14–21); ³⁴⁷ more purgatives (15.22–26); ³⁴⁸ the diet of patients weakened by the purgatives (15.27a–c); ³⁴⁹ weak patients should, in case

of urgency, be purged by administering oleaginous substances only (15.27d–28ab); medicated ghees against udara (15.28cd–34); ³⁵⁰ rules for patients taking these ghees (15.35–36); ³⁵¹ the indications for these ghees; their efficacy (15.37); ³⁵² prescriptions against ānāha (15.38); ³⁵³ the proper diet after elimination of the doṣas (15.39ab); ³⁵⁴ prescriptions for the removal of remnants of the doṣas (15.39cd–42); ³⁵⁵ various prescriptions against udara and its complications (15.43–53ab); ³⁵⁶ the treatment of udara due to vāta (15.53cd–58), ³⁵⁷ pitta (15.59–65), ³⁵⁸ kapha (15.66–75), ³⁵⁹ all three doṣas (15.76–84); ³⁶⁰ the treatment of plīhodara (enlargement of the spleen) (15.85–98ab); ³⁶¹ enlargement of the liver should be treated in the same way as plīhodara (15.98cd); ³⁶² the treatment of baddhodara (15.99–100), ³⁶³ chidrodara (15.101) ³⁶⁴ and udakodara (15.102–106); ³⁶⁵ surgical intervention is necessary when the last three types of udara do not subside with the mentioned procedures (15.107); ³⁶⁶ the surgical treatment of baddhodara and kṣatāntra (= chidrodara) (15.108–112), ³⁶⁷ and jalodara (= udakodara) (15.113–117); ³⁶⁸ after-treatment (15.118–120ab); ³⁶⁹ articles of diet suitable to or to be avoided by patients with udara (15.120cd–132). ³⁷⁰

Chapter sixteen (pāṇḍurogacikitsita) is about the treatment of morbid pallor (pānduroga) and some related disorders.

The subjects dealt with are: medicated ghees to be administered at the beginning of the treatment of pāṇḍuroga (16.1);³⁷¹ the formula of another medicated ghee (16.2–4);³⁷² purificatory treatment (16.5–9);³⁷³ prescriptions against pāṇḍuroga (16. 10–15ab);³⁷⁴ the formula of maṇḍūravataka (16.15cd–20ab);³⁷⁵ more prescriptions (16.20cd–32);³⁷⁶ rules for the treatment of pāṇḍuroga due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and all the doṣas (16.33–34);³⁷⁷ the treatment of pāṇḍuroga caused by the eating of earth (16.35–39);³⁷⁸ the general treatment of kāmalā (16.40–44);³⁷⁹ the treatment of kāmalā with discoloured faeces (16.45);³⁸⁰ the aetiology, pathogenesis and treatment of kāmalā located in the śākhās (16.46–52ab);³⁸¹ the treatment of kumbhakāmalā (16.52cd–53ab)³⁸² and halīmaka (16.53cd–57ab);³⁸³ the procedures described in the treatment of śopha should be adopted too in the treatment of pāṇduroga (16.57cd).

Chapter seventeen (śvayathucikitsita) deals with the treatment of oedematous swellings (śvayathu, śopha).

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of śvayathu affecting the whole body (sarvāngasara) (17.1–25ab)³⁸⁴ or part of the body (ekāngaśopha) (17.25cd–27);³⁸⁵ the treatment of śvayathu due to vāta (17.28–30ab),³⁸⁶ pitta (17.30cd–33ab),³⁸⁷ kapha (17.33cd);³⁸⁸ various prescriptions against śvayathu in general (17.34–38),³⁸⁹ śvayathu due to a combination of two or three doṣas (17.39–40),³⁹⁰ and traumatic (kṣataja) śvayathu (17.41);³⁹¹ things to be avoided by a patient suffering from śvayathu (17.42).³⁹²

Chapter eighteen (visarpacikitsita) is about the treatment of visarpa (erysipelas and related disorders).

The subjects dealt with are: the procedures to be used at the beginning of the

treatment of visarpa (18.1); ³⁹³ emetics (18.2); ³⁹⁴ purgatives (18.3–4ab); ³⁹⁵ indications for appeasing instead of purificatory procedures (18.4cd–5); drinks for thirsty patients (18.6–7); ³⁹⁶ bloodletting (18.8); ³⁹⁷ ghees (18.9); ³⁹⁸ external applications (18.10); ³⁹⁹ external applications in the treatment of visarpa due to vāta (18.11), ⁴⁰⁰ pitta (18.12–14ab), ⁴⁰¹ kapha (18.14cd–18ab); ⁴⁰² prescriptions for special cases (18.18cd–20ab); ⁴⁰³ the treatment of visarpa due to a combination of doṣas (18.20cd); the treatment of agnivisarpa (18.21–22) ⁴⁰⁴ and granthivisarpa (18.23–24); ⁴⁰⁵ the treatment of visarpa when it is moist (praklinna) from cauterization (dāha) or suppuration (pāka) (18.35–36ab); ⁴⁰⁶ the importance of bloodletting in visarpa, which is a disease that is always associated with raktapitta (18.36cd–37); ⁴⁰⁷ only ghees which are purgative should be administered to a patient with visarpa (18.38). ⁴⁰⁸

Chapter nineteen (kusthacikitsita) is about the treatment of kustha.

The subjects dealt with are: oleation should be adopted as the first therapeutic measure in cases of kustha (19.1ab); 409 a medicated oil or ghee to be prescribed when vata is the predominant dosa (19.1cd-2ab); 410 the formula of tiktakaghrta, which cures kustha due to pitta (19.2cd-7),411 and mahātiktakaghrta, more potent than tiktakaghrta (19.8-11ab); 412 a medicated ghee against kustha due to kapha (19.11cd-12ab);⁴¹³ medicated oils and ghees against all types of kustha (19.12cd-14ab);⁴¹⁴ these oleaginous substances may also be used for anointing the body (abhyañjana) (19.14cd); after oleation, one should proceed to the same purificatory treatment as in visarpa (19.15ab); 415 bloodletting (19.15cd-16ab); 416 purification should be followed by a fatty regimen (19.16cd-17);⁴¹⁷ the formulae of vajrakagbrta (19.18)⁴¹⁸ and mahāva jrakaghrta (19.19-20);419 more medicated ghees (19.21-24);420 articles of diet that are beneficial in kustha and those to be avoided (19.25-27);⁴²¹ the recipe for a kasāya (19.28-30); 422 the formula of mānibhadraguda (19.31-32); various prescriptions (19.33-42):⁴²³ the formula of saptasamā gulikā (19.43); more prescriptions (19.44-53); 424 after subduing the dosas inside the body, those present in the skin should be appeased by means of external applications (19.54); prescriptions for various external applications (19.55-78); 425 the formulae of vajrakataila (19.79-80)⁴²⁶ and mahāva irataila (19.81–82); ⁴²⁷ more external applications (19.83–89); ⁴²⁸ prescriptions against kustha with loss of parts of the body (19.90)⁴²⁹ and infestation by maggots (krmi) (19.91);⁴³⁰ the measures to be taken first in kustha due to vata, pitta and kapha respectively (19.92);⁴³¹ the application of pastes (lepa), after the elimination of blood and dosas, and after purification, will quickly lead to success (19.93); 432 when treated adequately and in the proper order, kustha does not become incurable (19.94);⁴³³ a patient with a large amount of dosas should repeatedly be purified in order to prevent the dangers attendant on massive and excessive elimination (19.95); 434 emetics should be administered every fortnight, purgatives every month; evacuation of the head should be carried out every third day and bloodletting every six months (19.96);⁴³⁵ kustha becomes incurable when the dosas are not eliminated by emetics and purgatives (19.97); 436 therapeutic measures based on religion may be resorted to, such as the worship of Siva, Siva's son, Tārā and Bhāskara (19.98). 437

Chapter twenty (śvitrakṛmicikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of depigmentation (śvitra) and disorders caused by parasites (kṛmi).

The subjects dealt with are: śvitra, more dreadful than kuṣṭha, becomes incurable very soon and should be counteracted energetically (20.1); the general treatment of śvitra (20.2–3),⁴³⁸ prescriptions (20.4–17),⁴³⁹ general rules regarding treatment (20. 18); ⁴⁴⁰ the general treatment of disorders caused by parasites (20.19–23), ⁴⁴¹ prescriptions (20.24–34),⁴⁴² articles of diet to be avoided (20.35). ⁴⁴³

Chapter twenty-one (vātavyādhicikitsita) is concerned with the treatment of the group of diseases called vātavyādhi.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of disorders by vāta singly, brought about without the support (upastambha) of other dosas, by means of the oral administration of oleaginous substances and by means of sudation (21.1-4ab);⁴⁴⁴ the effects of these procedures (21.4cd-9ab); 445 purification is required when the disorders are not alleviated (21.9cd-10ab); 446 purificatory ghees (21.10cd-11ab); 447 obstruction of vata should be counteracted by making it move downwards (21.11cd-12ab); 448 the treatment of patients unfit for purgation (21.12cd-13);⁴⁴⁹ the treatment of vata residing in the āmāśaya (21.14–15ab), ⁴⁵⁰ the umbilical region (21.15cd), ⁴⁵¹ below the umbilical region (21.16ab),⁴⁵² in the kostha (21.16cd),⁴⁵³ cardiac region and head (21.17),⁴⁵⁴ skin (21.18ab), 455 blood (21.18cd), 456 muscular tissue and fatty tissue (21.19ab), 457 bones and marrow (21.19cd),⁴⁵⁸ and semen (21.20-21ab);⁴⁵⁹ the treatment of vata affecting the foetus in the womb (21.21cd-22ab);460 the treatment of vata residing in snāvas, junctures, and śirās (21.22cd-24ab);⁴⁶¹ the treatment of apatānaka caused by vāta singly (21.24cd-35ab) and vāta associated with kapha (21.35cd-37):⁴⁶² the treatment of the two kinds of āyāma (21.38), dhanuskambha (21.39-40), hanusramsa (21.41-42ab), 463 jihvāstambha (21.42cd), ardita (21.43), 464 paksāghāta (21.44ab), 465 avabāhu (21.44cd), ūrustambha (21.45-49);466 prescriptions against disorders caused by vāta singly and vāta associated with other agents (21.50-73ab);⁴⁶⁷ the formula of balātaila (21.73cd-81);⁴⁶⁸ oleation, errhines, anuvāsanas and inunction quickly alleviate disorders by corrupted vata (21.82); when kapha, liquefied by oleation and sudation, comes to reside in the pakvāśaya, or when the signs of pitta appear, treatment by means of clysters is required (21.83).

Chapter twenty-two (vātaśoṇitacikitsita) is about the treatment of vātaśoṇita, also called vātarakta.

The subjects dealt with are: the importance of bloodletting in vātaśoṇita and the indications for its various methods (22.1–3ab); ⁴⁶⁹ contra-indications (22.3cd–4); ⁴⁷⁰ purgation (22.5cd–9), ⁴⁷² pitta (22.10–14ab), ⁴⁷³ kapha (22.14cd–15); ⁴⁷⁴ various prescriptions for internal use in vātarakta (22.16–20); ⁴⁷⁵ prescriptions for external application (22.21–37); ⁴⁷⁶ treatment of the uttāna and gambhīra types of vātarakta (22.38); ⁴⁷⁷ treatment of vātarakta with a predominance of vāta and kapha (22.39), ⁴⁷⁸ pitta and blood (22.40); ⁴⁷⁹ medicated oils (22.41–46); ⁴⁸⁰ obstruction of excited vāta by increased fatty tissue (medas) and kapha should be treated first like ādhyavāta, and, subsequently, as vātarakta

(22.47-48);⁴⁸¹ simultaneous excitement of prāna and other kinds of vāta should be treated in agreement with the dosa excited and the disorder present (22.49); 482 in disorders caused by vāta accompanied by āma, measures aiming at removal of āma should be employed first, followed by those counteracting vāta (22.50); śosa (wasting), āksepana (convulsions), samkoca (contractures), stambha (rigidity), svapana (anaesthesia), kampana (tremors), hanusramsa (drooping of the lower jaw), ardita (facial palsy), khāñjya (limping), pāngulya (lameness), khudavātatā (= vātarakta), sandhicyuti (dislocation of joints), and paksavadha (hemiplegia) are diseases caused (by vāta) residing in the fatty tissue, bones and marrow; they can be cured when of recent onset and should therefore be treated in their initial stage (22.51-53ab); the treatment of vata covered by pitta (22.53cd-56), 483 kapha (22.57-58ab), 484 or pitta and kapha together (22.58cd); 485 the treatment of vata covered by blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, bones and marrow, semen, food, urine, or faeces (22.59-62ab); 486 the treatment of vata covered everywhere (22.62cd-66ab); ⁴⁸⁷ the treatment of covered apāna (22.66cd-67ab); 488 covered states of prāna, etc., should be treated according to the physician's ability of discernment (22.67cd-68ab);⁴⁸⁹ udāna should be made to move upwards, samāna requires śamana measures, vyāna should be made to move in three directions, and prana, on which the integrity of the body depends, should be protected from the other four kinds of vāta (22.68cd-69); 490 covered types of vāta, when moving outside their pathways, should be brought back to their own seats (22.70ab);⁴⁹¹ garlic cures all types of covering, those by pitta and blood excepted (22.70cd-71ab); the treatment of covering by pitta and blood (22.71cd-72). 492

The treatment of all the diseases described in the Nidāna(sthāna) is completed now. The chapter ends with the synonyms of auşadha (therapeutic measure) (22.74).

Chapter 5 Kalpasiddhisthāna

Chapter one (vamanakalpa) deals with: madana as the best drug to induce vomiting, ² and the root of trivrt as the best for the purpose of purgation; ³ other drugs are the best choice in specific diseases (1.1); preparations with madana fruits (1.2–18); ⁴ when ripe fruits are unavailable, the flowers or unripe fruits (śalāṭu) may be employed (1.19ab); ⁵ the fruits of jīmūta, etc., are similar to those of madana; they are particularly suitable to patients with fever, respiratory problems, cough, hiccup, and other diseases (1.19cd–20ab); ⁶ preparations with the flowers and fruits of jīmūta (1.20cd–22); ⁷ similar recipes may be prepared with the fruits of tumbī or kośātakī (1.23ab); compound recipes with jīmūta (1.23cd–25); ⁸ indications for jīmūta paste (kalka) and powder (cūrṇa), together with cold or lukewarm water, in particular fevers (1.26); indications for preparations with ikṣvāku (1.27); ⁹ preparations with the leaf buds (pravāla), fruits and flowers of ikṣvāku, also called tumbī (1.28–34); ¹⁰ indications for dhāmārgava (= rājakośātakī) (1.35–36ab); ¹¹ preparations with dhāmārgava fruits (1.36cd–40); ¹² indications for kṣveḍa (= tiktakośātakī) (1.41); ¹³ preparations with kṣveḍa (1.42–43); ¹⁴ indications for kuṭa ja seeds (1.44); ¹⁵ preparations with kuṭa ja seeds (1.45–46). ¹⁶

Chapter two (virecanakalpa) deals with: the properties and actions of trivrt (2.1);¹⁷ in combination with other drugs, trivrt cures all diseases (2.2); 18 the two varieties of trivrt roots: trivrt proper and syama; their actions and indications (2.3-5); ¹⁹ the selection of suitable roots and the preparation of their bark (2.6); ²⁰ preparations with trivrt (2.7-16); ²¹ the preparations called kalyānakaguda (2.17–21ab)²² and avipattiyoga (2.21cd– 23); ²³ preparations suitable to be administered in a particular season (2.24–27ab) ²⁴ and in all seasons (2.27cd-30ab); 25 the properties, actions and indications of rajavrksa (2. 30cd-32ab); ²⁶ the preparation for medicinal use of raiavrksa fruits (2.32cd-34ab); ²⁷ preparations with the pulp of rajavrksa fruits (2.34cd-37); ²⁸ the preparation of the bark of tilvaka roots; preparations made with this bark (2.38-41);²⁹ the actions of sudhā; its indications and contra-indications (2.42-44ab);³⁰ the best kind of sudhā; the collection of its milky sap (2.44cd-45); 31 preparations with the milky sap of sudhā, also called snuh (2.46–48); 32 the collection of śańkhinī fruits and saptalā roots (2.49a-c); 33 the actions and indications of these two drugs; the way to use them as medicines (2. 49d-5lab); ³⁴ the selection of suitable roots of dantī and dravantī; the actions of these drugs (2.51cd-52);35 their preparation for medicinal use (2.53);36 preparations with danti and drayanti roots and their indications (2.54-57ab);³⁷ these nine drugs, trivit, etc., are the best ones for inducing purgation (2.57cd); harītakī can be used in the same way as trivrt (2.58ab); 38 pills prepared with harītakī and a number of other drugs that cure all diseases, but in particular grahaṇī, pāṇḍu(roga), kaṇḍū (pruritus), koṭha, and haemorrhoids (2.58cd-61ab);³⁹ the effects of a drug depend on the combination with other drugs, the way of preparation and administration, etc. (2.61cd-62ab);⁴⁰ the drugs that should always be added to purgatives (2.62c-f).

Chapter three (vamanavirecanavyāpatsiddhi) deals with the following subjects: an improperly administered emetic comes out by the downward route;⁴¹ in such a case, the patient should be given an emetic again, after having been oleated (3.1-2); 42 an improperly administered purgative comes out by the upper route; the treatment of this condition (3.3-5ab); 43 the disorders that arise when purgatives are administered without prior oleation and sudation (3.5cd-7ab); 44 the same disorders may arise when too small a dose of a purgative is given, after proper oleation and sudation (3.7cd-8c);⁴⁵ these mishaps belong to the category called ayoga (3.8d); the treatment of these conditions (3.9-10); 46 the disorders arising from the administration of a small dose of a purgative to patients who need a much larger quantity; the treatment required (3.11-14); 47 the treatment of pravāhikā, 48 parisrāva, 49 and vedanāparikartana 50 as complications (3.15-16ab); the symptoms appearing when the patient suppresses the urges to defecate after ingestion of a purgative; the treatment of this condition (3.16cd-20ab);⁵¹ the symptoms due to too large a dose of a purgative; the treatment required (3.20cd-21ab);⁵² the symptoms appearing when the urges to vomit are suppressed afteringestion of an emetic; the treatment required (3.21cd-23ab); 53 the symptoms due to a very strong emetic; the treatment required (3.23cd-26);⁵⁴ the treatment of excessive vomiting (3.27-28);⁵⁵ the treatment required when the tongue has retracted (3.29-30),⁵⁶ when obstruction to speech (vaggraha) and other disorders due to vata occur (3.31),57 when, due to excessive vomiting, jīvaśonita (life-blood) comes out (3.32-34),58 when thirst, fainting and signs pointing to mada appear (3.35-38),⁵⁹ when a prolapse of the rectum develops (3.39ab),60 and when the patient loses consciousness (3.39cd).61

Chapter four (bastikalpa) is concerned with the enemas called nirūha (4.1–53ab) and snehabasti (= anuvāsana) (4.53cd–73).

The subjects dealt with are: nirūhas against diseases due to vāta (4.1–10),62 pitta (4.11–16),63 and kapha (4.17–19ab);64 mild and fatty nirūhas, measured in prasṛta, are suitable to delicate patients and to those who suffer from the effects of (pañca)karman treatment; the recipes for five enemas of this type; their indications (4.19cd–26ab);65 siddhabastis, which can always be administered, because they are without harmful side-effects (4.26cd–27ab);66 two mādhutailika nirūhas (4.27cd–29ab);67 two yāpana enemas (4.29cd–31ab);68 two yuktaratha enemas (4.31cd–33ab);69 siddhabasti (4.33cd–34ab);70 another enema (4.34cd–36);71 more enemas, for the greater part containing meat broth, milk, ghee and several drugs (4.37–52);72 a medicated milk, to be drunk after the administration of a nirūha (4.53ab); snehabasti will be described now (4.53cd–54ab);73 snehabastis against diseases due to vāta (4.54cd–59ab),74 vāta and pitta (4.59cd–62ab),75 kapha (4.62cd–67);76 when a mild enema has made the bowels inert (jaḍa), one should administer a sharp one;77 when the bowels are irritated (vikarṣita) by a sharp enema, one should give a mild one; both types should

be employed on the appropriate occasion (4.68–69);⁷⁸ enemas prepared with drugs counteracting a particular doṣa cure the disorder caused by that doṣa when one takes into consideration the strength of the doṣa involved, the constitution of the patient, etc. (4.70);⁷⁹ patients suffering from heat require a cooling, those suffering from cold a heating enema (4.71);⁸⁰ contra-indications for bṛṛṇhaṇīya (roborant) (4.72)⁸¹ and viśodhanīya (purificatory) enemas (4.73).⁸²

Chapter five (bastivyāpatsiddhi) deals with: types of improper administration (ayoga) of nirūhas; the syndromes produced; their treatment (5.1–21ab); ⁸³ types of excessive administration; the symptoms produced; their treatment (5.21cd–28c); ⁸⁴ types of incorrect administration of snehabastis; the syndromes produced; their treatment (5.28d–50); ⁸⁵ the after-treatment of patients who have been subjected to emesis and other purificatory procedures (5.51–54). ⁸⁶

Chapter six (dravyakalpa) deals with the following subjects: the characteristics of habitats where good medicinal herbs can be found (6.1–3a); 87 the characteristics of suitable medicinal plants (6.3b-4); 88 amantra to be muttered during the collection of medicinal plants (additional verses); directions for the collection of medicinal substances (6.5-7); 89 sources of kasāyas are (substances possessing one or more of) five tastes; the salty taste forms an exception; 90 the five types of kaṣāya are: rasa, 91 kalka, 92 śrta, 93 śīta, and phanta: their strength decreases in the mentioned order (6.8–9ab); 94 the characteristics of the five types of kasāya (6.9cd-11ab); 95 the determination of the appropriate dose of a medicinal preparation (6.11cd-12); the preparation of the five kinds of kasāya (6. 13-14); ⁹⁶ the general rule for the ratios of the ingredients in preparing a sneha (i.e., a medicated ghee or oil), when the quantities are not mentioned explicitly: one part of paste, four parts of sneha, sixteen parts of liquid; 97 Saunaka, however, teaches that the quantity of the paste (kalka) used in preparing a sneha depends on the liquid used; the quantity of the paste should be one-fourth of that of the liquid when this is pure water, one-sixth when it is a decoction (nihkvātha), and one-eighth when it is a freshly expressed juice (svarasa) (6.15-16); when a fifth, etc., fluid is added, its quantity should be the same as that of the sneha (6.17ab); 98 the signs indicating that the intended stage of boiling the sneha has been reached (6.17cd-18); 99 the characteristics indicating that the correct stage of preparing an electuary (leha) has been reached (6.19ab); the three stages in the preparation of a sneha: manda, cikkana and kharacikkana; the characteristics of these stages; 100 a longer time of boiling makes it look burnt (dagdha); such a sneha is unsuitable to be used; 101 an improperly prepared sneha leads to weakness (sada) of the digestive fire (6.19cd-21ab); a sneha of the mrdu (= manda) type is employed for errhines, the khara(cikkana) type for anointing the body (abhyanga), the cikkana type for drinkable drugs and for enemas (6.21cd): 102 a śāna, pānitala, musti, kudava, prastha, ādhaka, drona, and vāha are each four times as much as the measure preceding in the series (6.22); the quantity of fresh drugs to be taken is double (the quantity of dried ones); this also applies to liquids, to begin with the measure called kudava (6.23ab); 103 when no liquid is mentioned in the formula of a sneha, water should be used; 104 when the ratios of the ingredients are not mentioned, one should take equal. quantities; 105 when the type of preparation is not mentioned, one should use a paste (kalka); when the part of the plant is not mentioned, one should employ its roots; when the plant is not well known, one should also take its roots (6.23cd-25ab); six vaṃšī make a marīcī, six marīcī a sarṣapa, eight sarṣapa a taṇḍula, two taṇḍula a dhānyamāṣa, two dhānyamāṣa a yava, four yava an aṇḍikā, four aṇḍikā a māṣaka, four māṣaka a śāṇaka (additional verse); two śāṇa make a vaṭaka, kola, badara, or draṅkṣaṇa, two vaṭaka an akṣa, picu, pāṇitala, suvarṇa, kavalagraha, karṣa, biḍālapadaka, tinduka, or pāṇimānikā, two picu a śukti or aṣṭamikā, (two śukti) a pala, prakuñca, bilva, muṣṭi, āmra, or caturthikā, two pala a praṣrṭa, two praṣrṭa an aṇjali, two aṇjali a mānikā; ā-ḍhaka, bhājana and kaṇṣa have the same meaning, as well as droṇa, kumbha, ghaṭa and armaṇa; one hundred pala make a tulā, twenty tulā a bhāra (6.25cd-29ab); 106 drugs found in the Himālayas are saumya (cooling) and wholesome, 107 those coming from the Vindhyas are āgneva (heating) (6.29cd-30).

Chapter 6 Uttarasthāna

Chapter one (balopacaraniya) is devoted to the care for children.²

The subjects are: the care for a child just after it is born, in particular when it has suffered during delivery (1.1); a ritual, accompanied by a mantra to be muttered in the infant's right ear (1.2-4); the cutting of the umbilical cord, which has to be fastened to the infant's neck (1.5); the treatment of the wound and the remnant of the cord (1. 6-7ab); 6 the cotton swab (picu) to be placed on the head, and the paste to be put on the infant's palate; a mantra has to be muttered over the paste (1.7cd-9ab); ⁷ alternatives for the mentioned paste (1.9cd-10ab); 8 the administration of ghee, mixed with salt, which makes the infant vomit the amniotic fluid (garbhāmbhas)9 it may have ingested (1.10cd); 10 subsequently, the iatakarman should be performed, according to the rules of Prajāpati (1.11ab); 11 lactation starts on the third or fourth day as the consequence of the dilatation of the sirās in the cardiac region after parturition (1.11cd-12ab); 12 the way the infant should be fed during the first three days (1.12cd-14): 13 the breastmilk of the child's mother is the best food (1.15ab); when the mother does not produce enough milk, one should select two wetnurses; these should be treated with much concern (1.15cd-17ab); ¹⁴ the causes of deficient milk production (1.17cd); ¹⁵ galactagogue measures (1.18); ¹⁶ corrupted breastmilk generates diseases in the child (1.19); ¹⁷ substitutes for breastmilk (1.20); 18 a ritual to be performed during the sixth night after birth (1.21); 19 the new mother should get up (sūtikotthāna) after the tenth day and the name-giving ceremony (nāmakaraṇa) should then be performed (1.22-23); ²⁰ a physician who is well versed in the subject should examine (parīksana) the signs determining the child's life span (ayus) (1.24);²¹ requirements for the child's bedding, which has to be fumigated (1.25);²² suitable materials for fumigation (1.26ab);²³ materials to be worn by the child in the form of amulets (mani) (1.26cd-28ab);²⁴ the piercing of the earlobes (karnavedha) (1.28cd-36): 25 weaning should take place after teething (1.37ab); the diet after weaning; the treatment of minor digestive disorders (1.37cd-40ab); ²⁶ purgatives should be resorted to in an emergency (ātyayika) only (1.40cd); ²⁷ an unruly (avidheva) child ought not to be frightened, because this would make it a victim of some graha (1.41ab);²⁸ children should be protected against draughts, being touched by strangers, and malnutrition (1.41cd);²⁹ a medicated ghee warding off malicious beings (1.42-43ab); the formulae of astāngasarpis (1.43cd-45ab) 30 and sārasvatasarpis (1.45cd-46ab), 31 which promote a child's mental and physical abilities; two more formulae with the same range of action (1.46cd-49ab);³² a recipe for improving the voice (1.49cd-50).³³

Chapter two (bālāmayapratiṣedha) is concerned with the treatment of children's diseases. 34

The subjects dealt with are: a child subsists on milk, solid food (anna), or both; when these foods are not corrupted, it remains healthy; otherwise, it develops disorders (2.1); the characteristics of pure milk and those of milk corrupted by vāta, pitta, kapha, a combination of two dosas, or the three dosas jointly (2.2-4); 35 the way to diagnose diseases brought about by corrupted breastmilk in young children (2.5–8);³⁶ next, the mother or wetnurse should be treated (2.9ab); the treatment of mother or wetnurse and the child when the milk is affected by vata (2.9cd-13ab), pitta (2.13cd-16ab), or kapha (2.16b-19);³⁷ the symptomatology of a serious children's disease called ksīrālasaka (2.20-23ab); 38 the treatment of this disease (2.23cd-26ab); 39 teething (dantodheda)⁴⁰ may give rise to all kinds of diseases, in particular to fever, diarrhoea, cough, vomiting, headache, abhisyanda, pothakī, and visarpa (2.26cd-28); the treatment of disorders caused by teething (2.29); general rules concerning the treatment of young children (2.30-34ab); preparations for curing corruption of the breastmilk (2.34cd-35ab); ⁴¹ recipes to promote teething (dasana janman) (2.35cd-38ab); a recipe against various disorders (2.38cd-40); a recipe, deriving from Vrddhakāśyapa, against diseases caused by the eruption of teeth (2.41-43ab); caution is necessary, because these diseases disappear spontaneously in many cases (2.43cd-44ab); the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of sosa (wasting) in children (2.44cd-46ab);⁴² the treatment of this syndrome (2.46cd-54ab); the recipe of laksadikataila, effective in various disorders (2.54cd-57ab);⁴³ a recipe against fever, cough and vomiting (2.57cd-58ab); the treatment of children who vomit each time after having been breastfed (2.58cd-61); the causes of the non-cutting of teeth (additional verse);⁴⁴ a syndrome which makes a child produce a particular sound with its teeth during sleep (additional verse); 45 a child having already teeth at birth, 46 or whose upper teeth cut first, 47 should be presented to a brāhmana, accompanied by a daksinā, and the parents should pay honour to Naigamesa (2.62–63ab); the pathogenesis and symptomatology of tālukantaka (2.63cd-65ab); 48 the treatment of this disorder (2.65cd-68); the causes and symptoms of a disease variously called mātrkādosa, 49 ahipūtana, 50 prstārus, 51 gudakutta.⁵² or anāmika⁵³ (2.69–70):⁵⁴ the treatment of this disorder (2.71–75): the treatment of dieases caused by (the eating of) earth (mrttikā) (2.76-77ab);⁵⁵ any children's disease may be treated by applying a medicine on the breast of the woman who suckles it, letting it stay there for a muhūrta, washing the breast, and administering the fluid obtained to the child (2.77c-f).56

Chapter three (bālagrahapratiṣedha)⁵⁷ is about demons afflicting children (bālagraha) and ways of warding these beings off.

The subjects dealt with are: the creation by Śūlapāṇi, with the intention to protect Guha, ⁵⁸ of five male and seven female grahas; the male ones are: Skanda, ⁵⁹ Viśākha, ⁶⁰ Meṣa, ⁶¹ Śvagraha, ⁶² and Pitṛgraha; ⁶³ the female ones are: Śakuni, Pūtanā, Śītapūtanā, Adṛṣṭipūtanā, ⁶⁴ Mukhamaṇḍitikā, ⁶⁵ Revatī, and Śuṣkarevatī⁶⁶ (3.1–3ab); ⁶⁷ continuous crying and fever are the forerunners of an attack by a graha (3.3cd); the general symptoms of affliction by a graha (3.4–5); ⁶⁸ the symptoms caused by Skanda (3.6–

9ab), 69 Skandāpasmāra (3.9cd-11), 70 Naigamesa (3.12-14), 71 Śvan (3.15-16ab), 72 Pitrgraha (3.16cd-18ab), 73 Śakuni (3.18cd-20ab), 74 Pūtanā (3.20cd-21), 75 Śītapūtanā (3.22-23ab), 76 Andhapūtanā (3.23cd-25), 77 Mukhamarıditā (3.26-27ab), 78 Revatī (3.27cd-28),79 and Śuskarevatī (3.32ab);80 grahas attack both children and adults out of a desire to hurt (himsākāṅksā), to experience sexual lust (ratyākāṅksā), or to receive worship (arcanākāriksā) (3.32cd);81 the syndromes caused by these three types of grahas are incurable, difficult to cure, and easily curable respectively (3.33-40ab);82 grahas wishing to kill are subdued by sacrificial offerings (homa) and mantras, the other two types by yielding to their wishes (3.40cd-41ab);83 the general treatment of afflictions by grahas in children (3.41cd-47ab);84 two recipes for a fumigation driving away all grahas (3.47cd-49ab);85 medicated ghees to be administered (3.49cd-54); a recipe for fumigation (3.55-57); moreover, one should employ the ghees described in the bhūtavidyā (chapter); 86 someone acquainted with mantratantra⁸⁷ should perform (the rituals called) bali, homa and snapana⁸⁸ (3.58): the substances for a decoction, to be used in a nocturnal bath (snapana) (3.59-60ab); secondary pathogenic involvements (anubandha) should, according to their seriousness, be treated with the remedial measures described in the balamayanisedha (chapter): 89 this also applies to complications appearing when a graha departs (3.60cd-61).

Chapter four (bhūtavijñānīya) is concerned with possession by non-human beings (bhūta).

The subjects dealt with are: signs enabling one to recognize a bhūtagraha (4.1); signs characteristic of a possessed (āviṣṭa) person (4.2); possession is of eighteen types (4.3ab); the ground for the occurrence of possession is an act of prajñāparādha in this or a former life, which gives deities, etc., and grahas the opportunity of striking (prahārin) at a weak spot (chidra) (4.3cd–5); 90 examples of these weak spots, such as being alone at night in an uninhabited place, etc. (4.6–8); 91 the days of the month preferred for an attack by the various groups of beings causing possession; 92 most dangerous are the periods of twilight (4.9–12); the signs pointing to possession by a Deva (4.13–15), 93 Daitya (4.16–17), 94 Gandharva (4.18–19ab), 95 Uraga (4.19cd–21ab), 96 Yakṣa (4.21cd–24ab), 97 Brahmarākṣasa (4.24cd–26ab), 98 Rākṣasa (4.26cd–29), 99 Piṣāca (4.30–34ab), 100 preta (4.34cd–35ab), 101 Kūṣmānḍa (4.35cd–36ab), 102 Niṣāda (4.36cd–38), 103 Aukiraṇa (4.39), 104 Vetāla (4.40), 105 and Pitṛgraha (4.41–42); 106 someone imtating in his behaviour a guru, an aged person, a sage (ṛṣi), or a Siddha should be regarded as possessed by these (4.43); 107 general characteristics of a person seized by a graha who cannot be treated (4.444).

Chapter five (bhūtapratiṣedha) is concerned with the treatment of disorders caused by bhūtas.

The subjects dealt with are: measures that are effective against bhūtas who do not wish to hurt (ahimseccha) (5.1); a compound medicine against insanity caused by a graha and against epilepsy (5.2-8ab); a recipe that drives grahas away (5.8cd-9); ¹⁰⁸ the formula of siddhārthakasarpis, a medicated ghee against grahas, in particular those

of the Asura type, and effective too in various other disorders (5.10–13ab); ¹⁰⁹ a recipe with similar properties (5.13cd-14); 110 a recipe for pills (guda) against insanity and other disorders (5.15-17); a recipe against insanity caused by Skanda and possession (āveśa) by Piśācas, Rāksasas and Devagrahas (5.18); the formulae of bhūtarāvaghrta, effective against grahas (5.19), and mahābhūtarāvaghrta, effective against grahas, insanity, kustha, and fever (5.20); the physician should soothe grahas, on the days they prefer for their attacks, with bali and home offerings, with presents to their liking, etc. (5.21-23); 111 particularities regarding the suitable places and quarters of the sky for bali offerings to the various groups of grahas (5.24-28ab); 112 the appropriate materials for bali offerings to Devagrahas (5.28cd-31ab), 113 Daityas (5.31cd), 114 Nagas (5. 32-34ab), 115 Yaksas (5.34cd-37ab), 116 Brahmarāksasas (5.37cd-40ab), Rāksasas (5. 40cd-44ab), 117 and Piśācas (5.44cd-47); 118 materials to be avoided (5.48-49); 119 religious measures, 120 consisting of mantras invoking the Dvādaśabhu ja Īśvara, 121 who is (also called) Āryāvalokita Nātha, 122 the (mantra or dhāranī called) sarvavyādhicikitsā, 123 and the Mahāvidyā (called) Māyūrī, 124 as well as the worship of Bhūteśa, 125 Sthānu, 126 and the latter's attendants, the Pramathas; 127 siddhamantras should also be muttered (5.50-52); the treatments described in the next two chapters may be employed too (5.53).

Chapter six (unmādapratisedha) is about insanity (unmāda) and its treatment. 128

The subjects dealt with are: the six types of unmada, caused by one dosa, an accumulation (nicava) (of all three dosas), mental affliction (ādhi), ¹²⁹ and poisonous substances (6.1ab); ¹³⁰ unmāda is defined as a mental type of mada, ¹³¹ brought about by dosas which have deviated from their proper pathways (6.1cd); 132 the general aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of unmāda (6.2–6c); ¹³³ the symptomatology of unmāda due to vāta (6.6d-10ab), ¹³⁴ pitta (6.10cd-11), ¹³⁵ kapha (6.12-13); ¹³⁶ the incurable type caused by all the dosas together (6.14); 137 the symptoms of the psychogenic type (6.15-16)¹³⁸ and of the incurable type caused by poison (6.17); ¹³⁹ general therapeutic measures (6.18-22ab); 140 a medicated ghee (6.22cd-23ab); 141 the formulae of brāhmīghrta (6.23cd-26ab), 142 kalyānakasarpis (6.26cd-31), 143 mahākalyāṇakasarpis (6.32-34ab), 144 and mahāpaiśācakaghṛta (6.34cd-38ab); 145 a number of recipes (6.38cd-43); 146 fumigations to be employed in unmada brought about by vāta and pitta (6.44a-c); the ghees called tiktaka 147 and jīvanīya, and miśrakasneha, 148 as well as particular articles of diet, are to be recommended in unmāda due to pitta (6.44d-45); 149 treatment by phlebotomy (6.46ab); 150 treatment by a diet rich in fat meat and by keeping the patient in a place free from draught (6.46cd); ¹⁵¹ treatment by measures that terrify the patient (6.47–53ab); ¹⁵² a patient suffering from being deprived of something precious or dear should be consoled (6.53cd-54ab); 153 disorders caused by grief, fear, etc., should be treated by inducing an opposite mood (6.54cd-55ab); 154 when bhūtas are involved too, the measures described in the bhūtapratisedha chapter 155 should be employed, next to bali offerings (6.55cd-58); 156 conditions preventing the occurrence of unmāda (6.59); 157 the signs indicating that unmāda has been cured (6.60). 158

Chapter seven (apasmārapratiṣedha) is about epilepsy (apasmāra) and related syndromes and their treatment. ¹⁵⁹

The subjects dealt with are: the definition of apasmāra as loss of memory (smrtyapāya); 160 the aetiology and pathogenesis of the disease (7.1-2); 161 the general symptoms (7.3-5ab); 162 the four types of apasmāra: caused by each of the dosas singly and all three jointly (7.5cd); 163 the prodromes (7.6-8); 164 the symptoms of apasmāra due to vāta (7.9-12ab), 165 pitta (7.12cd-13), 166 and kapha (7.14-15a); 167 the type caused by all the dosas should be given up (7.15b); 168 general therapeutic measures to be adopted first (7.15cd-16ab); 169 general measures in apasmāra brought about by vata, pitta and kapha respectively (7.16cd-17ab); ¹⁷⁰ appeasing (samsamana) medicines as the second stage of treatment (7.17cd-18ab); ¹⁷¹ a medicated ghee (7.18cd-19ab); ¹⁷² the formula of mahāpañcagavyaghrta (7.19cd-24ab); ¹⁷³ another medicated ghee (7.24cd-25ab); ¹⁷⁴ a recipe (7.25cd-26ab); ¹⁷⁵ a medicated ghee against apasmāra due to vāta and pitta (7.26cd-27); 176 a medicated milk preparation with the same action (7.28ab); 177 a medicated ghee (7.28cd-29ab); the bile of particular animals is useful in an errhine (7.29cd-30ab);¹⁷⁸ an oil prepared with the bile of particular animals (7.30cd-31ab); ¹⁷⁹ a medicated oil to be used as an errhine (7.31cd-32); materials of animal origin to be employed in fumigation (7.33); 180 more prescriptions (7.34); 181 a patient with apasmara should be treated with rasayana measures 182 and protected from dangers like (falling into) fire, water, etc. 183 (7.35–36); the patient should be comforted when the attack has passed away (7.37).

Chapter eight (vartmarogavijñānīya) is about diseases of the eyelids (vartman).

The subjects dealt with are: the pathogenesis of eye diseases in general (8.1-3a); the symptoms of three diseases of the eyelids caused by vāta: krcchronmīla (8.3-4), ¹⁸⁴ nimeşa (8.5a-c), ¹⁸⁵ and vātahata (8.5d-6ab); ¹⁸⁶ the symptoms of three diseases caused by pitta: kumbhīpitikā (8.6cd-7ab), 187 pittotklista (8.7cd-8ab), 188 and paksmaśāta (8.8cd-9ab); 189 the symptoms of three diseases caused by kapha: pothakī (8.9cd-10ab), ¹⁹⁰ kaphotklista (8.10cd), ¹⁹¹ and lagana (8.11); ¹⁹² the symptoms of three diseases caused by blood: utsanga (8.12a-c), 193 utklista (8.12cd), 194 and arśas (8.13);¹⁹⁵ the symptoms of añjananāmikā (8.14),¹⁹⁶ bisavartman (8.15),¹⁹⁷ utklistavartman (8.16), 198 śyāvavartman (8.17ab), 199 ślista(vartman) (8.17cd), 200 sikatāvartman (8.18a-c),²⁰¹ kardama (8.18cd),²⁰² bahala (8.19ab),²⁰³ kukūnaka (8. 19cd-20), 204 pakṣmoparodha (8.21–22), 205 alajī (8.23), 206 and arbuda (8.24); 207 these are the twenty-four diseases of the eyelids (8.25ab):²⁰⁸ the first disease of the list is curable by remedial measures; the next two diseases and arsas should be given up; 209 paksmoparodha is amenable to palliative treatment;²¹⁰ the remaining ones require surgical treatment (8.25cd-26ab); paksmasadana²¹¹ requires crushing (kuttayati) and arbuda excision; ²¹² lagana, ²¹³ kumbhīkā, ²¹⁴ bisa, ²¹⁵ utsanga, ²¹⁶ añjanā ²¹⁷ and alajī should be incised; pothakī, 218 śyāva(vartman), 219 sikatā(vartman), 220 ślista-(vartman), 221 the four kinds of utklista, 222 kardama, 223 bahala, 224 and kukūnaka 225 should be scarified (8,26cd-28).

Chapter nine (vartmarogapratisedha) is concerned with the treatment of the diseases of the eyelids. ²²⁶

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of krcchronmila (9.1): the treatment of kumbhīkā after scarification (9.2);227 the technique of surgical treatment of kumbhīkā and other diseases of the eyelids: incision of the eyelid with the mandalagra, followed by scarification; after-treatment (9.3-9ab);²²⁸ the signs of proper scarification (9.9cd-10ab);²²⁹ the signs of excessive scarification; the treatment of that condition (9.10cd-14);²³⁰ the treatment of firm and elevated pustules (pitikā) by incision with the vrihivaktra²³¹ and squeezing the contents out, followed by the measures described in the context of scarification (9.15);²³² these procedures are to be employed whenever scarification and incision are carried out (9.16ab); the treatment of pittotklista and asrotklista²³³ (9.16cd-18ab), ²³⁴ paksmasadana²³⁵ (9.18cd-20), pothakī (9.21-22ab), ²³⁶ kaphotklista (9.22cd-23), ²³⁷ lagana (9.24ab), ²³⁸ utsarıgā²³⁹ and añjananāmikā²⁴⁰ (additional verse),²⁴¹ and kukūna (9.24cd-33ab);²⁴² a recipe to be employed in cases of kukūna and pothakī (9.33cd-34ab); the treatment of paksmarodha²⁴³ (9.34cd-39);²⁴⁴ the technique of cauterization of the eyelid in paksmarodha (9.40-41a);²⁴⁵ special rules for the application of cautery in cases of alaiī and arbuda (9.41b-d).

Chapter ten (sandhisitāsitarogavijñānīya) is about the diseases of the junctures (sandhi), and those of the white (sita) and black (asita) parts of the eyes. ²⁴⁶

The subjects dealt with are: the pathogenesis and symptoms of jalāsrava, caused by vāta (10.1-2ab); ²⁴⁷ the symptoms of kaphāsrava (10.2cd); ²⁴⁸ the symptoms of upanāha, caused by kapha (10.3-4ab);²⁴⁹ the symptoms of raktāsrava, caused by blood (10.4cd);²⁵⁰ the symptoms of parvanī (10.5),²⁵¹ pūyāsrava (10.6),²⁵² pūyālasa (10.7),²⁵³ alaiī (10.8ab),²⁵⁴ and krmigranthi (10.8cd-9ab);²⁵⁵ (among these nine diseases of the junctures) upanāha, kṛmigranthi, pūyālasaka, and parvaṇī require surgical treatment; four, along with alajī, 256 should be given up when a discharge (āsrava) is present (10.9cd-10ab); the symptoms of śuktikā, a disease of the white part, caused by pitta (10.10cd-11),²⁵⁷ and suklārman, caused by kapha (10.12a-c);²⁵⁸ the symptoms of (the types of arman called) balasagrathita (10.12cd-13ab)^{2.59} and pistaka (10.13cd); 260 the symptoms of sirotpāta, caused by blood (10.14), 261 sirāharsa, which develops when sirotpāta is neglected (10.15), ²⁶² sirājāla (10.16ab), ²⁶³ śonitārman (10.16cd), ²⁶⁴ arjuna (10.17ab), ²⁶⁵ prastāryarman, caused by all the doşas, together with blood (10.17cd-18a), ²⁶⁶ snāvārman (10.18b), ²⁶⁷ adhimāmsārman (10.18cd-19a), ²⁶⁸ and sirāpitikā (10.19); ²⁶⁹ (among these thirteen diseases of the white part) śukti(kā), (sirā)harsa, sirotpāta, pistaka, (balāsa)grathita, and arjuna should be treated with medicines, ²⁷⁰ while the remaining seven require surgical treatment, ²⁷¹ unless they have developed recently, which makes them suitable to medicinal therapy; the five kinds of arman need excision, 272 but under certain circumstances, for example, when they have reached the black part or the pupil, they ought to be given up (10.20–22ab); the symptoms of ksataśukra, caused by pitta; the three stages of this disease, characterized by successive invasion of the three patalas; ²⁷³ the degrees of curability (10.22cd–25ab); ²⁷⁴ the symptoms of śuddhaśukra, caused by kapha (10.25cd), ²⁷⁵ those of ajakā, caused by blood, which is incurable (10.26), ²⁷⁶ and those of sirāśukra, due to all three doṣas, together with blood, and to be given up as incurable (10.27–28ab); ²⁷⁷ the symptoms of the incurable type of śukra that develops on account of pākātyaya (10.28cd–30ab); ²⁷⁸ other complications of śukra, to be given up by the physician (10.30cd–31); the five diseases of the black part and their degrees of curability have thus been discussed (10.32).

Chapter eleven (sandhisitāsitarogapratisedha) is about the treatment of the diseases of the junctures, and those of the white and the black parts of the eyes. ²⁷⁹

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of upanāha (11.1-2),²⁸⁰ parvanī (11.3-4ab), ²⁸¹ pūyālasa (11.4cd-6ab), ²⁸² krmigranthi (11.6cd-7ab), ²⁸³ śukti (11.7c), ²⁸⁴ balāsa ²⁸⁵ and pistaka ²⁸⁶ (11.7d-9), sirotpāta, ²⁸⁷ sirāharsa, ²⁸⁸ sirājāla, ²⁸⁹ and arjuna ²⁹⁰ (11. 10-12); among the five types of arman, those which are thin (tanu), turbid like smoke (dhūmāvila), red (rakta), and resembling thick sour milk (dadhinibha) should be managed in the same way as sukra (11.13);²⁹¹ the surgical removal of an arman (11.14-19); ²⁹² after-treatment ²⁹³ (11.20–22); the procedure, when carried out correctly, results in well-being (11.23a);²⁹⁴ the treatment that is necessary when not enough or too much of the arman has been cut off (11.23b-4); ²⁹⁵ remedial measures in a series of diseases brought about by kapha; remedial measures against a remnant of an arman (11.24-25ab);²⁹⁶ three scarifying anjanas, recommended by Nimi (11.25cd-27); sirājāla, resistant against scarificatory treatment, should be managed like an arman; the treatment of sirāpinikā (11.28); ²⁹⁷ the treatment of sukra in general and of its avrana and savrana types²⁹⁸ (11.29–48);²⁹⁹ sirāśukra requires the same treatment as (sa)vranaśukra (11. 49ab); the recipe of an excellent an jana (11.49cd-50); when the desired effect fails to occur, one should treat sirāśukra surgically, like an arman; 300 the same applies to ajakā ³⁰¹ (11.51ab); measures for relief of pain when treatment is unsuccessful ³⁰² in cases of a jakā, sukra, and related disorders (11.51cd-52ab); the disgusting aspect of sukra may be diminished by making it more elevated (utsedhasādhana) (11.52cd); an añjana against the discoloration (vaivarnya) of incurable sukras; the same anjana, when regularly applied, cures curable sukras (11.53-54); the treatment of ajakā (11.55-58ab); the general treatment of sukra (11.58c-f).

Chapter twelve (dṛṣṭirogavijñānīya) is about the diseases of the dṛṣṭi. 303

The subjects dealt with are: a doṣa that, following the sirās (in their course towards the eyes), has settled in the first patala, makes the objects of vision (rūpa) indistinct (avyakta), though they, for some unknown reason, may remain distinct too (12.1);³⁰⁴ after the doṣa has reached the second paṭala, one sees objects that do not exist; those actually present nearby are seen with difficulty, those distant or small are not seen at all,³⁰⁵ and those that are distant or near may be seen as being near or distant respectively (12.2–3ab); ³⁰⁶ when the doṣa has the form of a circle (maṇḍala), one perceives the objects as if they were circular; one sees them double when the doṣa is located in the middle of the drsti, or manif old when it is present at several places; when it is present

in the interior, small things appear to be large, large things small; when the dosa is located in the lower part, near objects remain invisible; when it is located in the upper part, distant objects remain invisible, and when it is located laterally, lateral objects; this disease is called timira (12.3cd-5);³⁰⁷ (the stage called) kācatā (having a glasslike aspect) develops when the dosa has settled in the third patala; 308 only objects in the upper half of the field of vision can be seen in this condition, and they appear as being covered by a thin cloth; the drsti³⁰⁹ assumes the colour of the dosa responsible; gradually, the drsti loses its normal function 310 (12.6-7ab); when this disorder is neglected and the dosa has succeeded in reaching the fourth patala, it may come to cover the whole disc (mandala) of the drsti, thus bringing about linganāśa (12.7cd-8ab);³¹¹ the symptoms of timira, kāca and linganāśa due to vāta (12.8cd-12a); 312 the symptoms of gambhīrā drś, a disorder caused by vāta (12.12); 313 the symptoms of timira, kāca and linganāśa due to pitta (12.13-14),314 followed by the symptoms of the disorders called hrasvā 315 and pittavidagdhā (drsti) 316 (12.15-16ab); the symptoms of timira, kāca and linganāśa due to kapha (12.16cd-20ab), 317 blood (12.20cd-21), 318 a combination of two dosas, and all dosas together 319 (12.22-23ab); the symptoms of patients who are called nakulāndha (12.23cd-24ab)³²⁰ and dosāndha³²¹ (12.24cd-26ab); the symptoms of the disorders called usnavidagdhā drsti 322 and amlavidagdhā drsti 323 (12. 26cd-29ab), dhūmara (12.29cd-30ab), 324 and aupasargikalinganāśa (12.30cd-32); 325 cases of linganāśa, those by kapha excepted, should be given up, as well as gambhīrā and hrasvā (dṛṣṭi); the six types of kāca and nakulāndha326 are amenable to palliative treatment; the remaining twelve disorders are curable; 327 thus the twenty-seven diseases of the drsti have been discussed (12.33).³²⁸

Chapter thirteen (timirapratisedha) is concerned with the treatment of timira. 329

The subjects dealt with are: the terrible disease called timira should quickly be treated, because, on neglect, it develops into kaca, and, kaca, in its turn, into blindness (āndhya) (13.1); a recipe against timira (13.2-4ab); a recipe against timira, kāca, raktarājī, ³³⁰ and headache (13.4cd-6ab); a formula against various disorders, also effective against the eye diseases called sukra, timira, naktāndhya, 331 usnadāha, 332 and amladāha (13.6cd-10ab);³³³ a recipe against timira (13.10cd-12ab);³³⁴ the formula of mahātraiphalaghrta, useful in all eye diseases (13.12cd-14ab); 335 the way to use this ghee; when taken properly, it confers, as Nimi assures, an eyesight like that of Suparna³³⁶ (13.14cd–16ab); a series of recipes against timira, containing triphalā as their main ingredient (13.16cd-19);³³⁷ a recipe against timira, containing many inorganic substances; 338 its preparation requires an andhamūsā 339 (13.20–22); a recipe against various eye diseases, to be used during the conjunction of the moon with Aśvinī³⁴⁰ (13.23–24); the recipe of a cūma that cures all kapha disorders, to be prepared under the naksatra Citrā³⁴¹ (13.25);³⁴² the recipe for an aniana with eighty qualities; the ingredients of this collyrium should be crushed under the naksatras Citrā, Aśvinī or Pusya; it cures all six kinds of timira and was proclaimed by Cakşusena (two additional verses); the recipe for an aniana against all eye diseases, ascribed to Videhapati³⁴³ (13,26-27); the recipe of bhāskaracūrna, effective against many eve diseases³⁴⁴ (13.28–31ab);³⁴⁵ an añjana against timira (13.31cd–33ab);³⁴⁶ a recipe

conferring a vision as sharp as that of Garuda (13.33c-f); a recipe against many eye diseases; one of the ingredients is lead (sīsa) (13.34-35); a recipe against timira that contains mercury (rasendra) and lead (bhujaga) (13.36); a recipe, prepared with the burnt head of a vulture (grdhra); it confers the same sharp vision as that bird possesses (13.37); a recipe, to be prepared within the mouth of a black snake, that is effective even when the pupil (tara) has been torn (13.38); 347 a recipe, prepared from mainly animal substances, that cures blindness (13.39-40), 348 another preparation, made with the fat (vasā) of a black snake, that cures blindness (13.41);³⁴⁹ the añ jana called apratisāra, to be employed in timira (13.42); ³⁵⁰ a pill against timira (13.43); the recipe called sanmāksikayoga, to be used in various eye diseases (13.44); the recipe of an añjana against all diseases of the drsti (drgāmaya); this collyrium consists mainly of inorganic substances (13.45); a recipe increasing the acuity of vision (13.46); ³⁵¹ general measures against eye diseases, to be selected according to the main dosa involved (13.47); the treatment of timira in general has been discussed now; its treatment according to the dosa(s) wil be the next subject (13.48); the treatment of timira due to vāta (13.49-50); the treatment of diseases of the supraclavicular region. in particular those of the drsti, due to vata and pitta (13.51-54ab); the treatment of supraclavicular diseases due to vāta and kapha (13.54cd-55); an añjana, and a pratyañjana 352 to be administered subsequently, against timira (13.56-57); more prescriptions against timira caused by vata (13.58-62); 353 the treatment of timira due to pitta (13.63-67)³⁵⁴ and kapha (13.68-70ab);³⁵⁵ the vartis called vimalā and kokilā, which clear the drsti from impurities (drgvaimalya) (13.70cd-71); ³⁵⁶ a varti against timira and sukra (13.72-73ab); the treatment of timira due to blood (13.73cd-74)³⁵⁷ and to a combination of two or three dosas (13.73cd-81ab); 358 the treatment of kaca (13.81cd-83ab), nakulāndha (13.83cd), dosāndha, also called niśāndha or rātryandha (13.84-90),³⁵⁹ dhūmara, amla-, pitta- and usnavidāha³⁶⁰ (13.91-94ab);³⁶¹ conditions leading to a disorder of sight similar to that in timira (13.94cd-96ab); 362 these conditions should be treated after ascertaining which dosa is involved, etc. (13.96cd); the treatment of persons whose eyesight has been damaged by looking at lightning, etc. 363 (13.97);³⁶⁴ the importance of protecting one's eyes (13.98); the things most suitable to protect them (13.99); ³⁶⁵ things which, according to Nimi, should be avoided in order to protect one's evesight (13.100).

Chapter fourteen (linganāśa
pratiṣedha), on the treatment of linganāśa, is entirely devoted to the couching of cataract.
 366

The subjects dealt with are: a linganāśa should be treated surgically by piercing the eye when it is due to kapha and ripe (sujāta), ³⁶⁷ and when it has resulted in loss of vision (nihprekṣya); it should also be free from the six complications, such as āvartakī, etc. (14.1); the characteristics of an unripe linganāśa; the problems arising from couching in such cases (14.2–3); ³⁶⁸ a linganāśa due to kapha is white, because kapha possesses that colour; when another doṣa dominates, the disorder called ānīlatā is present (14.4); ³⁶⁹ the characteristics of the complications called āvartakī, śarkarā, rājīmatī, chinnārnśukā, candrakī, and chattrakī (14.5–7); ³⁷⁰ general disorders to be regarded as contra-indications for couching (14.8); ³⁷¹ the technique of couching (14.

9–18ab);³⁷² after-care (14.18cd–22);³⁷³ complications that may arise after surgical intervention;³⁷⁴ the treatment of these complications (14.23–29);³⁷⁵ preparations promoting the healing process and the recovery of vision (14.30–32).³⁷⁶

Chapter fifteen (sarvākṣirogavijñānīya) is concerned with diseases affecting the whole eye.

The subjects dealt with are: the symptoms of abhisyanda due to vāta (15.1-3); 377 when neglected, this disease develops into adhimantha; 378 the symptoms of adhimantha (15.3d-4);³⁷⁹ when neglected, adhimantha develops in its turn into hatādhimantha; the symptoms of hatādhimantha (15.5); 380 the pathogenesis and symptoms of anyatovāta (15.6-7ab); ³⁸¹ the symptoms of vātaparyaya (15.7cd); ³⁸² the symptoms of abhisyanda 383 and adhimantha due to pitta 384 (15.8-10a), kapha (15.10b-12ab), 385 and blood (15.12cd-14); ³⁸⁶ adhimantha is more painful than (abhi)syanda (15.15); ³⁸⁷ the symptoms of suskāksipāka, caused by vāta and pitta (15.16-17c);³⁸⁸ (the disease called) sasopha is brought about by the three dosas, along with blood; its symptoms (15.17d-19ab);³⁸⁹ the symptoms of alpasopha (15.19cd)³⁹⁰ and aksipākātyaya (15. 20-21ab);³⁹¹ the pathogenesis and symptomatology of amlosita (15.21cd-23a);³⁹² these are the sixteen diseases affecting the whole eye (15.23ab):³⁹³ hatādhimantha³⁹⁴ and aksipākātyaya should be given up; 395 when badly treated, adhimantha by vāta destroys the drsti in five days; when brought about by kapha or blood, it does so in seven and three days respectively; adhimantha due to pitta destroys the disti on the day it arises (sadya eva) (15.23cd-24).³⁹⁶

Chapter sixteen (sarvākṣirogapratiṣedha) is about the treatment of diseases affecting the whole eye.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of all types of (abhi)syanda in their prodromal stage (16.1); a recipe against all types of abhisyanda (16.2-3ab); ³⁹⁷ prescriptions against the various types of abhisyanda (16.3cd-5ab); prescriptions against abhisyanda in general (16.5cd-9); prescriptions against abhisyanda due to vāta (16.10-12),³⁹⁸ pitta and blood (16.13–16), ³⁹⁹ kapha (16.17a–c), and all three dosas (16.17cd); bloodletting, along with preparatory measures, dependent on the dosa involved; aftertreatment (16.18–19ab); 400 a paste to be applied to head and face (16.19cd–20ab); the treatments described with respect to timira should be considered too (16.20cd); in all cases of (adhi)mantha, etc., cauterization above the eyebrows is recommended (16.21); the recipes of three vartis, to be employed in eye diseases due to vata, pitta and blood, and kapha respectively (16.22-24); the formula of pāśupatayoga, effective against all diseases that have their origin in abhisyanda (16.25-27);⁴⁰¹ the treatment of śuskāksipāka (16.28–31ab), 402 sasopha and alpasopha (16.31cd-43); 403 amlosita should be managed like abhisyanda due to pitta (16.44ab);⁴⁰⁴ the eighteen diseases called pilla, which persist for a long time, consist of: the utklistas, which are caused by kapha, pitta, blood, and a combination of dosas (nicaya), 405 kukūnaka, paksmoparodha, śuskāksipāka, pūyālasa, bisa(vartman), pothakī, amlosita, alpa(śopha), and the various types of (abhi)syanda and (adhi)mantha, those by vata excepted (16.44cd-46ab); 406 the treatment of each of these diseases has already been discussed, but their general treatment, once they have developed into pilla, will be the next subject (16.46cd–47ab); recipes against forms of pilla and loss of the eyelashes (16.47cd–59); pūyālasa, if not cured in this way, should be cauterized with a very thin śalākā (16.60ab); the ninety-four eye diseases have been dealt with now, with regard to their aetiology, symptomatology and treatment (16.60cd–61ab); rules concerning diet and behaviour which help to protect the eyes against diseases (16.61cd–65); the two broad-based sirās which go from the middle of the feet to the eyes carry medicinal preparations, applied to the feet, to the eyes (16.66); corruption of these sirās results in corruption of the eyes; one should therefore always consider what is beneficial to the eyes, wear shoes, practise inunction of the feet, keep them clean, etc. (16.67).

Chapter seventeen (karnarogavijnanīya) is concerned with diseases of the ears.

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology and symptomatology of (karna)śūla (piercing pain in the ears) 407 due to vāta (17.1-3); the symptoms of (karna) śūla due to pitta (17.4-5ab), 408 kapha (17.5cd-6ab), 409 blood (17.6cd-7ab), 410 and all three dosas (17.7cd-8); 411 the genesis and symptomatology of kamanāda, due to vāta (17.9);⁴¹² when vata is followed by kapha, or when the disorder is neglected, the patient may become hard of hearing, and, gradually, deaf (17.10);⁴¹³ the genesis and symptomatology of pratīnāha, arising when kapha, desiccated by vāta, obstructs the auditory duct (17.11);⁴¹⁴ itching (kandū)⁴¹⁵ and local swelling (sopha),⁴¹⁶ two diseases caused by kapha (17.12ab); the symptoms of pūtikarnaka, brought about by kapha, when it is made vidagdha by pitta (17.12cd-13ab);⁴¹⁷ the symptoms of krinikarnaka, caused by small living beings eating away an ear corrupted by vata (17.13cd-14ab); 418 the lesions that result from scratching an itching ear may develop into an abscess (vidradhi); another type of abscess may also occur⁴¹⁹ (17.14cd-15a); the symptoms of karnārśas (a polyp)⁴²⁰ and karnārbuda⁴²¹ (17.15b-d); kucikarnaka, arising when vāta narrows the auditory passage (śaskulī) (17.16ab);⁴²² (karna)pippalī, a disorder in which fleshy growths of the size of a pepper (pippalī) corn appear in the meatus (17.16cd-17a); ⁴²³ the symptoms of vidārikā, due to all three dosas jointly (17.17b-18); 424 pālīśosa (desiccation of the earlobes) is brought about by vāta staying in the sirās (17.19ab):425 tantrikā, another disease of the earlobes caused by vāta (17. 19cd); ⁴²⁶ the symptoms of paripota, due to vata again (17.20-21a); ⁴²⁷ the aetiology and symptomatology of utpāta, arising from pitta and blood (17.21b-22ab); 428 the symptoms of unmantha, also called gallira, due to vāta and kapha (17.22cd-23ab); 429 the symptoms of duhkhavardhana, arising from the three dosas and developing when the earlobe is badly pierced (17.23cd-24ab); 430 the symptoms of lehin, caused by kapha, blood, and small organisms (kṛmi) (17.24cd-25ab); 431 pippalī, śūla arising from all the dosas collectively, vidārī, and kucikamaka are incurable; tantrikā is amenable to palliative treatment; the other diseases are curable; thus the twenty-five diseases of the ears have been dealt with (17.25cd-26).432

Chapter eighteen (karnarogapratisedha) is concerned with the treatment of the diseases of the ears.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of karṇaśūla due to vāta (18.1-5); 433 all

the measures against vāta diseases and pratiśyāya may also be employed (18.6ab): 434 things to be avoided (18.6cd); the treatment of sūla due to pitta (18.7-10). 435 kapha (18.11-16ab), 436 and blood (18.16cd); 437 the treatment of discharges (āsrāva), purulent or otherwise (18.17-21); 438 the general treatment of karnanāda 439 and bādhirya 440 (18.22); prescriptions against karnanāda, bādhirya⁴⁴¹ and karnaśūla (18.23-24),⁴⁴² karnaruj, 443 karnasrāva, 444 aśruti 445 (18.25), and karnanāda (18.26ab); the formula of a ksārataila, useful in a number of diseases (18.26cd-30ab);⁴⁴⁶ the treatment of numbness (supti) of the ears (18.30cd), karnasopha, karnakleda (a discharging ear), and mandaśruti (hardness of hearing) (18.31ab); cases of deafness that should be given up (18.31cd); the treatment of pratīnāha (18.32-33); 447 the same treatment is useful when the ears are full of dirt (18.34ab); the treatment of karnakandū (itching of the ears)⁴⁴⁸ and karnasopha (swelling of the ear) (18.34), pūtikarna and krmikarna (18.35), 449 karnavidradhi (18.36), 450 arsas and arbuda (18.37a), vidārikā (18.37b-d), pālīśosa (18.38-39); prescriptions making the ears grow (18.40-41);⁴⁵¹ the surgical treatment of reduced (samksīna) earlobes, tantrikā, and paripota (18.42); 452 the treatment of utpāta (18.43-44), 453 unmantha (18.45-46ab), 454 improperly pierced earlobes (18.46cd-48ab), and parilehikā (18.48cd-50);⁴⁵⁵ the way to attach again an ear that has recently been cut off (18.51); after-treatment (18.52-59ab); the restoration of a cut-off nose by plastic surgery; 456 after-treatment (18.59cd-65); the attachment of a nose that has recently been cut off (18.66ab); the attachment of lips that have been cut off (18.66cd). 457

Chapter nineteen (nāsārogavijāānīya) is about diseases of the nose.

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology and pathogenesis of pratisyaya (19. 1-3ab);⁴⁵⁸ the symptoms of pratisyaya due to vata (19.3cd-5ab),⁴⁵⁹ pitta (19. 5cd-6ab), 460 kapha (19.6cd-7ab), 461 all the dosas jointly (19.7cd), 462 and blood (19.8–9ab); 463 when neglected, pratisyāya develops into dustapratisyāya; 464 the symptoms of this disorder and its complications (19.9cd-12); 465 the characteristics of the pakva (mature) stage of pratisyaya (19.13); the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of blirśaksava (severe sneezing) (19.14–15); 466 the symptoms of nāsikāšosa, due to vāta and kapha (19.16–17a), 467 and nāsānāha, due to the same dosas (19.17b-18ab); 468 the pathogenesis and symptomatology of ghrānapāka, arising from pitta (19.18cd-19a); 469 the symptoms of ghrānasrāva, arising from kapha (19.19); 470 the pathogenesis and symptomatology of apīnasa, due to kapha (19.20-21);⁴⁷¹ the symptoms of dīpti, due to pitta (19.22);⁴⁷² the pathogenesis and symptomatology of pūtināsa (19.23);⁴⁷³ the symptoms of pūyarakta, caused by all the dosas or a trauma (19.24);⁴⁷⁴ the pathogenesis and symptomatology of putaka, caused by the three dosas (19.25);⁴⁷⁵ cases of arsas and arbuda of the nose should be diagnosed according to the main dosa(s) involved (19.26ab); general symptoms of arsas⁴⁷⁶ and arbuda⁴⁷⁷ of the nose (19.26cd-27ab); among these eighteen diseases of the nose. 478 dustapīnasa is amenable to palliative treatment (19.27cd). 479

Chapter twenty (nāsārogapratiṣedha) is concerned with the treatment of diseases of the nose.

The subjects dealt with are: general therapeutic measures in the treatment of pīnasa (20.1-9ab); 480 the treatment of pratiśyāya due to vāta (20.9cd-10), 481 pitta 482 or blood (20.11-12), 483 kapha (20.13-14ab), 484 all the doṣas (20.14cd), 485 the treatment of duṣṭapīnasa (20.15-17), 486 kṣava(thu) 487 and puṭa(ka) (20.18-19ab), nāsāśoṣa (20.19cd-20a) 488 and nāsānāha (20.20b), 489 nāsāpāka 490 and dīpti 491 (20.20cd), pūtināsa 492 and apīnasa 493 (20.21-23ab), and pūyarakta (20.23cd-24a); 494 the treatment to be employed after cauterization of arśas and arbuda of the nose (20.24b-25).

Chapter twenty-one (mukharogavijfiānīya) is concerned with the diseases of the oral cavity and adjacent structures (mukharoga).

The subjects dealt with are: general aetiological factors of mukharogas; kapha is usually the main dosa (21.1-3ab); khandaustha, a disease in which vāta splits the lips (21.3cd);⁴⁹⁵ the symptoms of osthakopa due to vāta (21.4),⁴⁹⁶ pitta (21.5),⁴⁹⁷ kapha (21.5d-6ab), 498 all three dosas (21.6cd-7ab), 499, blood (21.7cd-8ab), 500 muscular tissue (21.8cd), ⁵⁰¹ fatty tissue (21.9ab), ⁵⁰² a trauma (ksata) (21.9cd-10ab), ⁵⁰³ vāta and kapha together (21.10cd);⁵⁰⁴ the symptoms of gandālajī (21.11ab),⁵⁰⁵ śīta(danta)⁵⁰⁶ and dālana, due to vāta (21.11cd-12ab), 507 dantaharsa (21.12cd-13ab), 508 dantabheda (21.13cd), 509 (danta)cāla (21.14ab), 510 karāla (21.14cd), 511 adhidanta 512 or vardhana⁵¹³ (21.15), śarkarā⁵¹⁴ and kapālikā⁵¹⁵ (21.16-17ab), śyāva(danta), due to blood, pitta and vāta (21.17cd), 516 pralūna 517 or krmidantaka 518 (21.18–20ab), śītāda, due to kapha and blood (21.20cd-21c), ⁵¹⁹ upakuśa, due to pitta and blood (21.21cd-23ab),⁵²⁰ dantapupputa, due to kapha and blood (21.23cd-24ab),⁵²¹ dantavidradhi, due to the three dosas and blood (21.24cd-25ab),⁵²² susira, due to pitta and blood (21.25cd-26ab),⁵²³ mahāsusira, due to all the dosas (21.26cd-27ab).⁵²⁴ adhimāmsaka, due to kapha (21.27cd-28ab),525 vidarbha, caused by bruises (ghrsta) (21.28cd-29ab);⁵²⁶ neglect of diseases of the gums, even of the curable ones, leads to the development of a subtle gati (a fistula); these fistulae are of five types (21.29cd-31ab);⁵²⁷ the symptoms of disorders of the tongue, brought about by vāta, pitta and kapha respectively (21.31cd-32);⁵²⁸ the symptoms of alasa, brought about by kapha and pitta (21.33);⁵²⁹ adhijihva, brought about by kapha, pitta and blood (21.34–35ab), 530 and upajihva, of the same nature (21.35cd); 531 the symptoms of tālupitikā, arising from vāta (21.36), 532 galasundikā, arising from kapha and blood (21.37-38ab),⁵³³ tālusamhati (21.38cd),⁵³⁴ tālvarbuda, arising from blood (21.39ab),⁵³⁵ kacchapa, arising from kapha (21.39cd),⁵³⁶ (tālu)pupputa, arising from kapha and fatty tissue (21.40ab),⁵³⁷ (tālu)pāka, arising from pitta (21.40cd),⁵³⁸ tāluśosa, arising from vāta and pitta (21.41ab); ⁵³⁹ the general characteristics of rohinī (21.41cd-42ab); 540 the symptoms of rohinī due to vāta (21.42cd), 541 pitta (21.43), 542 kapha (21.44a), 543 blood (21.44b-d), 544 and all the dosas (21.45ab); 545 the symptoms of (kantha)śālūka, due to the dosas, with predominance of kapha (21.45cd-46ab); 546 the symptoms of vrnda (21.46cd)⁵⁴⁷ and tundikerikā (21.47);⁵⁴⁸ the symptoms of galaugha (21.48),⁵⁴⁹ valaya (21.49ab),⁵⁵⁰ gilāyuka, due to the dosas (21.49cd-50ab),⁵⁵¹ śataghnī (21.50cd-51ab),⁵⁵² galavidradhi (21.51cd-52ab),⁵⁵³ galārbuda, due to the dosas (21.52cd-53ab);⁵⁵⁴ the general characteristics of galaganda, brought about by vāta, kapha and fatty tissue (21.53c-f); 555 the symptoms of galaganda due to

vāta (21.54),556 kapha (21.55)557 and fatty tissue (21.56);558 the symptoms of svarahan, due to vāta (21.57);⁵⁵⁹ the symptoms of mukhapāka, due to vāta (21.58–59),⁵⁶⁰ and of ūrdhvaguda (21.60); ⁵⁶¹ the symptoms of mukhapāka due to pitta (21.61), ⁵⁶² blood (21.61d), 563 and kapha (21.62ab); 564 when mukhapāka due to kapha spreads to the interior of the cheeks, a particular kind of arbuda appears (21.62cd-63ab); the symptoms of mukhapāka arising from all the dosas, together with blood (21.63cd); the same agents lead to pūvāsyatā in those who have an aversion to brushing their teeth (21.64ab); thus have been described the seventy-five diseases of the lips, cheeks, teeth, roots of the teeth, tongue, palate, throat, and the whole oral cavity; 565 their numbers are eleven, 566 one, 567 ten, 568 thirteen, 569 six, 570 eight, 571 eighteen, 572 and eight 573 respectively (21.64cd-66ab); incurable among them are: karāla, ostha(kopa) due to muscular tissue and to blood, the types of arbuda, with the exception of that due to jala, kacchapa, tālupitikā, galaugha, mahāsuṣira, svaraghna, ūrdhvaguda, śyāva(danta), śataghnī, valaya, alasa, nādī arising from all the dosas, osthakopa arising from all the dosas, rohinī due to blood and to all the dosas, dantabheda when the teeth have burst, upa jihvikā when subject to pāka, and, finally, galaganda and svarabhramśin. 574 when accompanied by difficulties in breathing and lasting for longer than a year (21.66b-69ab); (danta)harsa and (danta)bheda are amenable to palliative treatment; the other diseases may be cured, by means of surgery or by medicines (21.69cd), 575

Chapter twenty-two (mukharogapratisedha) is about the treatment of the diseases of the oral cavity and adjacent structures.

The subjects dealt with are: the general treatment of khandaustha (22.1-2); the treatment of khandaustha due to vata (22.3-5ab), ⁵⁷⁶ pitta or a trauma (22.5cd-7), ⁵⁷⁷ kapha (22.7d-8),⁵⁷⁸ fatty tissue (22.9);⁵⁷⁹ the treatment of jalarbuda (22.10); the treatment of gandāla jī (22.11ab); the treatment of sītadanta (22.11cd-13ab), 580 dantaharsa⁵⁸¹ and dantabheda⁵⁸² (22.13cd-14ab), pracaladvija⁵⁸³ (22.14cd-15); ⁵⁸⁴ a supernumerary tooth (adhidantaka) should, after preparatory treatment, be extracted; the after-treatment is like that of kṛmidanta (22.16-17ab);585 the treatment of dantaśarkarā⁵⁸⁶ (22.17cd-18ab)⁵⁸⁷ and kapālikā (22.18cd);⁵⁸⁸ the treatment of krmidantaka (22.19-22); 589 when this treatment is not successful, the tooth should be extracted, even if not loose, with a samdamśaka or dantanirghātana; 590 after-treatment (22.23–25); ⁵⁹¹ patients unfit to undergo extraction (22.26ab); upper teeth should never be extracted, because this would result in many complications (22.26cd-27ab); ⁵⁹² the treatment of śītāda (22.27cd-28),⁵⁹³ upakuśa (22.29-32ab),⁵⁹⁴ dantapuppuṭaka (22.32cd-33ab),⁵⁹⁵ vidradhi (22.33cd-34),⁵⁹⁶ susira (22.35-37ab),⁵⁹⁷ adhimāmsaka (22.37cd-38),⁵⁹⁸ vidarbha (22.39),⁵⁹⁹ nādī (22.40-42ab),⁶⁰⁰ the varieties of kantaka (22.42cd-44ab), 601 jihvālasa (22.44cd), 602 upajihvikā (22.45-46ab), 603 and (gala)śundikā (22.46cd-50ab); 604 the surgical treatment described in the context of galasundikā may also be applied in cases of samghāta, pupputa and kūrma⁶⁰⁵ (22.50cd); 606 the treatment of the āma and pakva stages of tālupāka (22.51-52); 607 the treatment of tāluśosa (22.53-54ab); 608 the general treatment of diseases of the throat (22.54cd-58ab); the treatment of rohinikā due to vāta (22.58cd-59), 609 pitta (22.60-61ab),610 blood (22.61cd),611 and kapha (22.62-63ab);612 the same treatment

(as in rohinī due to kapha) may be applied in cases of vrnda, śālūka, tundikerī, and gilāyu⁶¹³ (22.63cd);⁶¹⁴ the treatment of (gala)vidradhi (22.64);⁶¹⁵ the treatment of galaganda due to vāta (22.65–68), 616 kapha (22.69–71), 617 and fatty tissue (22.72); 618 when galaganda does not respond to these therapeutic procedures, it should be managed like a vrana (22.73ab); the general treatment of mukhapāka (22.73cd-74);⁶¹⁹ the treatment of mukhapāka due to vāta (22.75),620 pitta 621 and blood (22.76a), kapha (22.76b-d),622 and all the dosas (22.77ab);623 the treatment of an arbuda due to mukhapāka (22.77cd-79ab); the treatment of pūtivadana⁶²⁴ (22.79cd-81ab); the formula of a compound drug against many mukharogas, devised by Videhādhipati (22.81cd-83); the formula of a compound medicine against all mukharogas, which, moreover, confers the sight of a vulture and the hearing of a hog (22.84-86); a recipe against moles, etc. (vyanga, nīlī, mukhadūsikā), of the face, making this as lovely as the moon (22.87); a formula effective against all mukharogas, in particular loose teeth (22.88-89); a recipe for pills, to be held in the mouth, against all diseases of the oral cavity (22.90-94); a related recipe for a medicated oil, particularly effective in making the teeth fixed and firm (22.95); these pills and the oil should be used daily to ensure health and steadiness of the teeth (22.96); the recipe of a kavala against all mukharogas (22.97); a ctirna, mixed with honey, against diseases of the teeth (22.98); 625 similar preparations, called kālaka (27.99)626 and pītaka (22.100); 627 a rasakrivā against diseases of the throat (22.101); a recipe preventing the occurrence of mukharogas (22.102); recipes against mukhapāka (22.103), all mukharogas (22.104), mukhapāka and nādīvrana (22.105); a series of similar prescriptions (22.106); a gandūsa that strengthens weak teeth (22.107); diseases affecting the oral cavity, roots of the teeth and the throat usually show a predominance of kapha and blood; for that reason bloodletting is useful (22.108); general measures against these diseases (22.109); articles of diet, etc., which remove kapha (22.110); diseases of the throat, when neglected, obstruct the kind of vata called prana, and should therefore be treated without any delay (22.111).

Chapter twenty-three (śirorogavijñānīya) is about diseases of the head.

The subjects dealt with are: the general aetiology of diseases of the head (23.1–3c); the symptomatology of śirastāpa (headache) due to vāta (23.3d–7c); ⁶²⁸ a variety affecting half of the head only and called ardhāvabhedaka (23.7cd–8); ⁶²⁹ the symptoms of śiro'bhitāpa (= śirastāpa) due to pitta (23.9), ⁶³⁰ kapha (23.10–11 ab), ⁶³¹ blood (23.11c), ⁶³² and all the doṣas jointly (23.11d); ⁶³³ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of śiro'bhitāpa caused by small organisms (jantu) and accompanied by excitement of blood, muscular tissue and all the doṣas (23.12–15ab); ⁶³⁴ the symptoms of śiraḥkampa, a disorder with predominance of vāta (23.15cd); ⁶³⁵ the symptoms and prognosis of śaṅkhaka, due to the three doṣas and blood, with a predominance of pitta (23.16–17); ⁶³⁶ the symptoms of sūryāvarta, due to vāta, with pitta as the secondary (anubaddha) doṣa (23.18–20a); ⁶³⁷ these are the ten śirorogas; ⁶³⁸ the nine diseases of the scalp (kapālaroga) ⁶³⁹ will be described next (23.20); the symptoms of upaśīrṣaka, arising from corrupted vāta (23.21); ⁶⁴⁰ dependent on the doṣa that predominates, it is classified as a pitikā, arbuda or vidradhi (23.22ab); the characteristics of arumsikās,

which are boils (piṭikā), due to pitta, blood, kapha, and small organisms (jantu) (23. 22cd–23ab); ⁶⁴¹ the symptoms of dāruṇaka, due to kapha and vāta (23.23cd–24ab); ⁶⁴² the pathogenesis of indralupta⁶⁴³ (alopecia), also called rujyā ⁶⁴⁴ or cācā, ⁶⁴⁵ primarily due to pitta and vāta, secondarily to kapha and blood (23.24cd–26ab); khalati ⁶⁴⁶ (baldness) has the same origin (as indralupta), but develops gradually (23.26cd); ⁶⁴⁷ the characteristics of khalati due to vāta, pitta and kapha; the colour of the skin ágrees with that of the main doṣa involved (23.27); the characteristics of khalati due to all the doṣas (23.28a); incurable types of khalati (23.28b–d); the aetiology and pathogenesis of palita (grey hair) (23.29); the characteristics of palita due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and all the doṣas (23.30–31ab); ⁶⁴⁸ the characteristics of another type of palita, arising from śiroruj (headache) (23.31cd); khalati and palita caused by the three doṣas are incurable (23.32ab); grey hair, developing naturally, requires rasāyana treatment (23.32cd).

Chapter twenty-four (sirorogapratisedha) is about the treatment of diseases of the head. The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of siro'bhitāpa due to vāta (24.1-9ab),649 ardhāvabhedaka (24.9cd-10),650 sūryāvarta (24.11ab),651 śiro'bhitāpa due to pitta (24.11cd-13ab), 652 kapha (24.13cd-14c), 653 all the dosas (24.14d), 654 and parasites (krmi)⁶⁵⁵ (24.15–18);⁶⁵⁶ the treatment of (sirah)kampa (24.19ab), upasīrsaka (24.19cd-20), arumsikā (24.21-25ab), 657 and dārunaka (24.25cd-27); 658 the treatment of indralupta (24.28-32); the treatment of khalati, palita, wrinkles (vali). and discoloration of the hair (harilloman)⁶⁵⁹ (24.33-34); recipes against palita (24. 35-39ab),660 harilloman and vali (24.39cd-40ab);661 preparations making the hair grow and blacken again (24.40cd-44ab);⁶⁶² a prescription against all diseases of the head (24.44cd-45); 663 a recipe against all diseases affecting the region above the clavicles (24.46); the formula of māyūraghṛta, to be employed in the same group of diseases (24.47-49ab);664 the formula of the panacea called mahāmāyūraghrta, even more effective than māyūraghṛta (24.49cd-56);665 thus the 231 diseases of the region above the clavicles have been described (24.57);666 these should be treated without any delay, since the root of the human body is situated above and the branches are below (24.58); ⁶⁶⁷ the head should be protected carefully, because it is the seat of all the senses and the pranas (24.59).

Chapter twenty-five (vraṇapratiṣedha) is concerned with vraṇas (wounds and ulcers) and their treatment.

The subjects dealt with are: the two groups of vraṇa: nija (endogenous), i.e., arising from the doṣas, and āgantu (exogenous), ⁶⁶⁸ duṣṭa (corrupted), and śuddha (clean); a duṣṭavraṇa is affected by the doṣas, while a śuddhavraṇa is not (25.1–2ab); the characteristics of a duṣṭavraṇa (25.3cd–5ab); ⁶⁶⁹ according to the involvement of one or more doṣas and blood, and all their combinations, duṣṭavraṇas are of fifteen types (25.5cd); ⁶⁷⁰ the characteristics of a vraṇa corrupted by vāta (25.5d–7ab), ⁶⁷¹ pitta (25.7cd–8), ⁶⁷² kapha (25.9), ⁶⁷³ blood (25.10), ⁶⁷⁴ two or more of these (corrupting agents) (25.11ab); ⁶⁷⁵ the characteristics of a śuddhavraṇa (25.11cd–12ab); ⁶⁷⁶ seats of a vraṇa are: skin, muscular tissue, sirās, snāyus, junctures, bones, the viscera, and the marmans; ⁶⁷⁷ the problems in treating a vraṇa increase in the mentioned order ⁶⁷⁸ (25.

12cd-13ab); the characteristics of easily curable vranas (25.13cd-14), those that are difficult to cure (25.15-17), and incurable ones (25.18-19ab); ⁶⁷⁹ conditions making a curable vrana incurable (25.19cd-22ab); 680 the characteristics of a healing vrana (25.22cd-23ab); ⁶⁸¹ the treatment of a vrana in the stage where local swelling (sopha) is present (25.23cd-25ab);⁶⁸² when the vrana itself and the accompanying swelling are firm on the touch, discoloured and painful, in particular when poison is present, bloodletting by means of leeches, etc., is required (25.25cd-26);683 after-treatment (25.27–28); the recipe of a most efficient pradeha (plaster) against swelling (25.29); ⁶⁸⁴ the treatment of firm, immobile and very painful swellings and vranas with a predominance of vāta (25.30-31);685 the treatment of firm swellings with only slight pain, due to vata and kapha (25.32-33); 686 further treatment procedures, to be employed when the swelling does not soften (25.34ab); the swelling then subsides if the ripening process has not yet begun, but, if this process is already on its way (vidagdha). 687 it will go on (25.34cd); ⁶⁸⁸ a poultice promoting ripening (25.35); ⁶⁸⁹ procedures making a ripe swelling burst (dārana) (25.36-37); ⁶⁹⁰ measures making the contents come out (25.38-40);⁶⁹¹ the treatment of very corrupted vranas (25.41);⁶⁹² rinsing fluids (kṣālana) and other preparations which purify corrupted vranas (25.42-44),693 the treatment of vranas corrupted by vata (25.45)694 and by pitta and blood (25.46ab),695 measures making deep vranas in non-fleshy parts of the body granulate (utsādana) (25.46cd-48ab)⁶⁹⁶ and elevated vranas in tender and fleshy parts less elevated (avasādana) (25.48cd-49ab);⁶⁹⁷ elevated and firm vranas of long standing should be purified with caustics (25.49cd-50ab);⁶⁹⁸ indications for cauterization (agnikarman) (25.50cd-51);⁶⁹⁹ after purification by these methods, healing (ropana) measures should be employed (25.52ab); preparations which promote healing by stimulating granulation (25.52cd-56ab); 700 similar presciptions for vranas corrupted by blood and bile, kapha and vāta (25.56cd-57); an excellent preparation promoting granulation (25.58); preparations that stimulate the growth of new skin (25.59-6lab);⁷⁰¹ the recipe of an ointment (lepa) normalizing the colour (savarnakarana) of the new skin (25.61cd-62ab); ⁷⁰² preparations stimulating the growth of new hair (25.62cd-63); ⁷⁰³ regarding the dietary regimen, ⁷⁰⁴ the rules of the chapter on sastrakarman ⁷⁰⁵ should be followed (25.64ab); drugs useful in the treatment of vranas due to vāta, pitta, kapha, or a combination of dosas (25.64cd-65); ⁷⁰⁶ these drugs may be employed in making seven kinds of preparation: praksālana (rinsing fluid), lepa (ointment), ghrta (ghee), taila (oil), rasakriyā (inspissated juice), cūrna (powder), and varti (25.66); the formula of a medicated ghee that purifies and heals vranas with narrow openings, those located in a marman, and yranas that are discharging, deep, very painful, or fistulating (25.67). 707

Chapter twenty-six (sadyovraṇapratiṣedha) is concerned wih fresh wounds (sadyovraṇa) and their treatment.

The subjects dealt with are: fresh wounds, which are of traumatic (abhighāta) origin and occur suddenly (sadyas), are of eight types: ghṛṣṭa, avakṛtta, vicchinna, pravilambita, pātita, viddha, bhinna, and vidalita (26.1–2c); ⁷⁰⁸ the characteristics of these eight types (26.2d–5); ⁷⁰⁹ the treatment of severe pain (26.6) ⁷¹⁰ and heat (kṣatoṣman) in

an (already) extending wound (26.7);⁷¹¹ preparations promoting the closing up (samdhāna) of long wounds (26.8); ⁷¹² the treatment of swelling (samrambha) (26.9); the same treatment is useful in the ghrsta and vidalita types, which are characterized by slight bleeding and a tendency to inflammation (pāka) (26.10);⁷¹³ the other types bleed more, which leads to excitement of vata, resulting in its turn in severe pain; the treatment of this condition (26.11-12);⁷¹⁴ this treatment has to continue for seven days; when, after this period, the initial symptoms have lost their intensity (gatavega), one should go on with the treatment described in the preceding chapter (26.13):⁷¹⁵ this is the general line of treatment; particular cases will be discussed now (26.14ab); treatment procedures in wounds of the ghrsta, ⁷¹⁶ avakrtta, vicchinna and pravilambin types (26.14cd-15); 717 an eye that has burst (sphutita) is incurable; the replacement of an intact eye that has come out; after-treatment (26.16–18); ⁷¹⁸ the treatment of a depressed (avasanna) eye (26.19); the after-treatment to be applied when a cut-off ear has been sewn on again (26.20ab);⁷¹⁹ the surgical procedure to be applied when the kṛkāṭikā has been cut and air escapes; after-treatment (26.20cd-22ab); 720 the surgical treatment of large wounds of the extremities; a vellita or gosphanā bandage should then be applied (26.22cd-23); ⁷²¹ the surgical treatment of testicles hanging out of the scrotum; a gosphanā bandage should be applied; after-treatment (26.24-26); 722 the treatment of patients with a cut-off limb (26.27); 723 the treatment to be practised after removal of a foreign body in general (26.28ab) and after its removal from the head (26.28cd-29); ⁷²⁴ the consumption of brain tissue (mastiska) of animals is to be recommended after loss of this tissue (mastulungasruti) in a patient (26.30ab); the treatment to be applied after removal of a foreign body from some other part of the body (26.30cd); ⁷²⁵ the treatment of bleeding and of deep wounds with a narrow opening (26.31);⁷²⁶ the symptoms of patients with a perforating in jury to the viscera (26.32-33); 727 the symptoms of accumulation of blood in the āmāśaya (26.34)⁷²⁸ or pakvāśaya (26.35);⁷²⁹ the symptoms of non-perforating injuries to one of the āśayas (receptacles) (26.36); 730 signs of incurability (26.37); 731 the treatment of the accumulation of blood (antarlohita) in āmāśaya or pakvāśaya (26.38–39); ⁷³² drinking of blood is advisable when much blood has been lost (26.40ab); 733 injury to the bowels (kosthabheda) is of two types: klistantra (without perforation) and chinnantra (with perforation); the symptoms of the latter type are more severe than those of the former; the life of a klistantra patient is endangered, but a chinnantra patient does not survive (26.40cd-41); a patient with injured bowels will survive when urine, faeces and flatus are passed along their normal pathways, and when complications do not appear (26.42); ⁷³⁴ non-injured bowels which have come out should be placed back, but not so when injured; some say that these too should be put back after having been bitten by the heads of ants (utpangilasirograsta) (26.43); 735 the technique of replacing the bowels (26.44–46ab); ⁷³⁶ when this replacement proves to be difficult, because the opening in the abdominal wall is too small or the bowels are too large, the wound should be enlarged (26.46cd-47ab); 737 closure of the wound with a suture (26.47cd-48ab); ⁷³⁸ after-treatment (26.48cd-50ab); ⁷³⁹ a piece of fatty tissue that has come out of the abdomen may be cut off; the technique of this procedure; after-treatment (26.50cd-54); 740 a medicated oil promoting wound healing (26. 55-56ab); ⁷⁴¹ the treatment of in juries caused by blows, falls, etc. (26.56cd-57ab) and

of patients whose bodies are bruised, wasted, and damaged in the areas of vital spots (26.57cd-58). ⁷⁴²

Chapter twenty-seven (bhanga pratiședha) is about fractures and dislocations (bhanga) and their treatment. 743

The subjects dealt with are: asthibhanga, which is caused by falls, blows, etc., is of two types: affecting or not affecting a joint (27.1ab); 744 the inability to flex and extend characterizes a loosened joint; ⁷⁴⁵ much swelling, severe pain, the inability to move, and the production of a noise on pressure are characteristic of a fracture in general; ⁷⁴⁶ the specific signs depend on the type of fracture present (27.1cd-3c); the treatment of the various types will now be described (27.3d-4ab); general characteristics of fractures; characteristics of patients who are difficult to treat (27.4cd-6); 747 particular types of fractures and dislocations which should be given up by the physician (27.7–10ab);⁷⁴⁸ cartilages (tarunāsthi) are usually bended, long bones (nalaka) broken, flatbones (kapāla) split, and the other types cracked (27.10cd-11ab);⁷⁴⁹ the various corrections required (27.11cd-12); 750 the technique of immobilization with a kuśā (splint); the dressing of the bandage (27.13-16ab); 751 the bandage should neither be too tight nor too loose (27.16cd-17ab); the number of days after which the bandage should be renewed depends on the season (27.17cd-18ab); 752 local after-treatment (27.18cd-20); 753 dietary rules for the patient (27.21);⁷⁵⁴ the treatment of complicated fractures (27.22– 25c); 755 degrees of curability, dependent on the build and age of the patient (27.25d-27ab); ⁷⁵⁶ patients with a fracture of the hip, thigh or lower leg should lie on a wooden plank (kapāta); five pegs (kīla) are necessary in these cases and also in fractures of the vertebral column, thorax and clavicles (27.27cd-29ab);757 the same procedures are to be employed in dislocations (27.29cd); ⁷⁵⁸ dislocations of long standing should be reduced after preliminary treatment (27.30);⁷⁵⁹ imperfectly healed fractures should be broken again and managed like a fresh fracture (27.31); ⁷⁶⁰ inflammation should always be prevented, since this would interfere with the healing process (27.32); ⁷⁶¹ patients with fractures should be treated with the fatty preparations prescribed for vata diseases, with the four types of medicines which give strength, ⁷⁶² and with clysters (27.33); ⁷⁶³ wholesome articles of diet (27.34); ⁷⁶⁴ things to be avoided (27.35); ⁷⁶⁵ the formula of a compound preparation, consisting of a fragrant oil (gandhataila), which gives firmness to the bones and overcomes diseases caused by vata and pitta, even when powerful and spreading (27.36-41).766

Chapter twenty-eight (bhagandarapratisedha) is concerned with the knowledge about and treatment of anal fistulae (bhagandara) and related disorders.

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology, pathogenesis and general characteristics of bhagandara; ⁷⁶⁷ this disorder is usually preceded by a boil (piṭikā) and is located in corrupted blood and muscular tissue; bhagandara consists of an external or internal, discharging sore (vraṇa) in the vicinity of the bladder and (other parts of) the urinary tract (28.1–4a); ⁷⁶⁸ when left untreated, it tears the region of the genitals (bhaga), bladder and anus, ⁷⁶⁹ giving rise to numerous subtle openings which emit flatus, urine, faeces, or semen (28.4–5ab); ⁷⁷⁰ eight types occur: arising from a single dosa, two do-

sas, the three dosas, and from an external cause (agantu) (28.5cd);⁷⁷¹ the disorder is called pitikā when unripe, but bhagandara after reaching the ripe stage (28.6ab); 772 the general characteristics of a pitikā that may develop into bhagandara (28.6cd-7ab); the characteristics of a pitikā due to vāta (28.7cd-8a), ⁷⁷³ pitta (28.8), ⁷⁷⁴ kapha (28. 9ab), 775 vāta and pitta (28.9cd), kapha and vāta (28.10ab), and all the dosas (28.10cd-11ab);⁷⁷⁶ neglect leads to maturation, thus producing a sore (28.11cd);⁷⁷⁷ the characteristics of this sore when it is brought about by vata; this type is called sataponaka (28.11d-13a); ⁷⁷⁸ the characteristics of ustragrīva, due to pitta (28.13b), ⁷⁷⁹ parisrāvin, due to kapha (28.13cd),⁷⁸⁰ pariksepin, due to vāta and pitta (28.14), rju, due to vāta and kapha (28.15ab); the pathogenesis and symptomatology of arśobhagandara, due to kapha and pitta (28.15cd-17ab); the characteristics of sambukāvarta, due to all the dosas (28.17cd-18ab); ⁷⁸¹ the origin, pathogenesis and symptomatology of the type called unmārgin ⁷⁸² or kṣata ja ⁷⁸³ (28.18cd-20); the signs characteristic of these types are like those of a vrana (28.21ab); six types are difficult to cure; those arising from all the dosas and from a wound (ksata ja) should be given up (28.21cd); ⁷⁸⁴ the same applies to the bhagandara that has reached the fold (valī) called pravāhinī, or the sevanī (raphe) (28. 22ab); first of all, a physician should treat a pitikā as well as he can, in order to prevent maturation (28.22cd-23ab); when, nevertheless, maturation has developed, the bhagandara should be examined like a haemorrhoid, in order to determine whether it is an external (arvācīna) or internal (parācīna) one; 785 both kinds require surgical treatment, followed by application of a caustic or cauterization; 786 a caustic ought to be chosen when the fistula is of the ustrakandhara (= ustragrīva) type (28.23cd-26ab);⁷⁸⁷ the surgical treatment of śataponaka (28.26cd-27ab); ⁷⁸⁸ a pariksepin fistula is to be treated in the same way, and, also, with the ksārasūtra described in the chapter on nādī⁷⁸⁹ (28. 27cd); the treatment of an arsobhagandara (28.28-29); 790 surgical treatment of a fistula with many openings requires that the physician selects one of the four possible types of incision; ⁷⁹¹ the description of these incisions, called gotīrtha, sarvatobhadra, dalalāngala or ardhalāngala, and lāngala (28.30-32a); 792 indications for cauterization (28. 32b-d);⁷⁹³ the kostha of the patient should be purified from time to time (28.33ab); two external preparations (28.33cd-34); ⁷⁹⁴ more recipes (28.35-42); ⁷⁹⁵ the specific treatment of bhagandara has thus been described; all the measures useful in cases of vrana should also be taken into consideration (28.43);⁷⁹⁶ things to be avoided for a year or longer after the healing of a bhagandara (28.44). 797

Chapter twenty-nine (granthyarbudaślīpadāpacīnāḍīvijñānīya) is about the disorders called granthi, arbuda, ślīpada, apacī, and nāḍī.

The subjects dealt with are: when the dosas, with predominance of kapha, settle in fatty tissue, muscular tissue, or blood, they may bring about a round, elevated swelling; it is called granthi, because a lump resembling a knot (grathana) is produced (29.1); ⁷⁹⁸ nine types are distinguished: arising from one of the dosas, blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, osseous tissue, sirās, and a vraṇa respectively (29.2ab); ⁷⁹⁹ the characteristics of a granthi due to vāta (29.2cd-3), ⁸⁰⁰ pitta (29.4a-c), ⁸⁰¹ kapha (29.4d-5ab), ⁸⁰² blood (29.5cd-6ab), ⁸⁰³ muscular tissue (29.6cd-7ab), ⁸⁰⁴ fatty tissue (29.7cd-9ab), ⁸⁰⁵ a fracture or trauma (abhighāta) of the bones (29.9cd-10a), ⁸⁰⁶ sirās (29.10-11), ⁸⁰⁷ a

vrana (29.12-13); 808 curable are granthis arising from one dosa, blood, or fatty tissue, with the exception of those which are gross, rough, or mobile, and those located in a marman, the throat, or the belly (29.14a-c); 809 an arbuda is larger than a granthi, but its characteristics are the same; 810 six types are distinguished: arising from one dosa, blood, muscular tissue, 811 and fatty tissue; 812 fatty tissue and kapha predominate in an arbuda, which explains that is not movable and does not mature (29.14d-15);813 the pathogenesis of a sonitārbuda (due to blood) (29.16–17); 814 arbudas arising from blood or muscular tissue should be given up;815 the other four types are curable (29.18ab); the pathogenesis of ślipada (29.18cd-19); 816 the characteristics of ślipada due to vata, pitta, and kapha (29.20–21ab); 817 when the swelling has been present for more than a year, or is very large, or discharges profusely, the case should be given up (29.21cd); 818 some declare that ślipada may also affect the hands, nose, lips, and ears, in the same way as the legs; ⁸¹⁹ ślīpada is particularly frequent in marshy regions (29.22); ⁸²⁰ the pathogenesis and symptomatology of gandamālā⁸²¹ or apacī (29.23-25); 822 accompanying symptoms indicating incurability (29.26ab);823 the development of a ripe and swollen vrana into a gati or nādī (fistula) (29.26cd-27); 824 some learn that a nādī is solitary and does not have a straight track, whereas a gati possesses multiple tracks (29.28ab); five types of nadī are distinguished; brought about by a single dosa, all the dosas, and a foreign body (29.28cd); 825 the characteristics of a nadī due to vata (29. 29a-c), 826 pitta (29.29d-30ab), 827 kapha (29.30cd-31a), 828, all the dosas (29.31b), 829 and a foreign body (29.31c-f), 830

Chapter thirty (granthyarbudaślīpadāpacīnāḍīpratiṣedha) is on the treatment of granthi, arbuda, ślīpada, apacī, and nādī.

The subjects dealt with are: unripe stages of granthi are to be treated like the corresponding stages of sopha (30.1ab);831 the medicated ghee to be prescribed to those who want purification; the ointment to be used after purification (30.1cd-2ab); 832 after sudating the patient, the granthi should be repeatedly rubbed (vimardana) (30.2cd); 833 this procedure is particularly useful in a granthi due to vāta: 834 a granti due to pitta or blood requires bloodletting by means of leeches and a cooling measure; 835 a granthi arising from kapha ought to be treated like one due to vata (30.3d); 836 next, a granthi, even when unripe, should be excised, and, as soon as the flow of blood has stopped, be cauterized, thus making it completely disappear; leaving a small part of it will make it fill up again (30.4); 837 the same treatment is applicable to granthis arising from muscular tissue or from a vrana (30.5ab); 838 a similar procedure should be adopted when the granthi originates from fatty tissue; the description of this procedure (30.5cd-6), 839 the treatment of a sirāgranthi (30.7); an arbuda should be managed in the same way as a granthi (30.8ab); 840 the specific treatment of an arbuda (three additional verses); 841 the treatment of ślipada⁸⁴² due to vāta (30.8cd-10), ⁸⁴³ pitta (30.11ab), ⁸⁴⁴ and kapha (30.11cd-12); 845 the treatment of the unripe and ripe stages of apacī and gandamālā (30.13–30ab); 846 a procedure against obstinate granthis that derives from Nimi (30. 30cd-31ab); 847 another procedure, taught by Susruta (30.31c-f); 848 another different procedure (30.32); 849 the treatment of a nadi due to vata (30.33), 850 pitta (30.34ab), 851 kapha (30.34cd), 852 and a foreign body (30.35ab); 853 a gati (= $n\bar{a}d\bar{t}$), in which the use of a sharp instrument is contra-indicated, should be opened up by the repeated application of a caustic (30.35cd-36ab); ⁸⁵⁴ the wicks (varti) and oils prescribed in corrupted and deep vranas with a small orifice are also useful in treating a nāḍī (30.36cd-37ab); ⁸⁵⁵ a paste foruse in a nāḍī vrana (30.37cd); the recipe of a wick that heals a nāḍī (30.38); ⁸⁵⁶ another recipe (30.39-40).

Chapter thirty-one (kṣudrarogavijñānīya) is concerned with the group of diseases called ksudraroga.

The subjects dealt with are: the characteristics of ajagallika, a children's disease, due to kapha and vāta (31.1);857 the characteristics of yavaprakhyā, also due to kapha and vāta (31.2ab);858 the characteristics of kacchapī (31.2cd-3ab),859 panasikā (31.3cd-4a), 860 pāsānagardabha, due to kapha and vāta (31.4b-d), 861 mukhadūsikā, due to kapha and vāta (31.5), 862 padmakantaka, due to kapha and vāta (31.6), 863 vivrtā, due to pitta (31.7), 864 masūrikā (31.8), 865 visphota, more serious than masūrikā (31.9ab), 866 viddhā, due to vāta and pitta (31.9cd-10a), 867 gardabhī, also due to vāta and pitta (31.10b-d),868 kaksā, due to vāta or pitta (13.11),869 gandhanāmā (31.12ab), 870 rājikā (31.12cd-13ab), 871 jālagardabha, arising from slightly excited dosas with a predominance of pitta (31.13cd-14ab), 872 agnirohini, arising from the three dosas with a predominance of pitta, and lethal after five days, a week, or a fortnight (31.14cd-15).873 irivellikā, due to the three dosas (31.16ab).874 vidārī (31.16cd), 875 śarkarārbuda, arising from fatty tissue, vāta, and kapha, with vāta as the predominant dosa (31.17-19ab), 876 valmīka (31.19cd-20), 877 kadara (31.21), 878 ruddhaguda, caused by the apāna (31.22-23ab), 879 cipya, 880 aksataroga, 881 also called upanakha 882 (31.23cd-24ab), kunakha (31.24cd), 883 alasa (31.25a-c), 884 tilakālaka (31.25d-26a), 885 masa (31.26b), 886 carmakīla, 887 more elevated than masa (31.26cd), jatumani (31.27ab), 888 lāñchana (31.27cd), 889 vyanga, which is found on the face, 890 and called nīlikā when found elsewhere 891 (31.28), vyanga and nīlikā due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and blood (31.29–30ab), 892 prasupti, due to vāta and kapha (31.30cd-31), 893 utkotha and kotha, due to pitta and kapha (31.32-33ab); 894 these are the thirty-six ksudrarogas (31.33cd). 895

Chapter thirty-two is concerned with the treatment of the ksudrarogas.

The subjects dealt with are: the **treatment** of immature ajagallikā (32.1ab); ⁸⁹⁶ the treatment of yavaprakhyā (32.1cd-2a); ⁸⁹⁷ the series of disorders from kacchapī up to pāṣāṇagardabha, as well as ajagallikā, should, when mature, be managed in the same way as yavaprakhyā, like a vraṇa (32.2b-d); ⁸⁹⁸ the treatment of mukhadūṣikā (32.3); the measures to be adopted when this treatment fails (32.4ab); ⁸⁹⁹ the treatment of padmakaṇṭaka (32.4cd-5ab); ⁹⁰⁰ vivṛtā and the subsequently described disorders, up to jāla(gardabha), as well as irivellikā, and including agnirohiṇī, but only after warning that the last mentioned one is incurable, require the same treatment as vīsarpa due to vāta (32.5c-f); ⁹⁰¹ the specific treatment of jālakagardabha (32.6), ⁹⁰² vidārikā (32.7ab), ⁹⁰³ and śarkarārbuda⁹⁰⁴ (32.7cd); incurable cases of valmīka (32.8); ⁹⁰⁵ the treatment of curable cases of valmīka, when immature and when mature (32.9-10); ⁹⁰⁶ the treatment of kadara (32.11ab); ⁹⁰⁷ ruddhapāyu⁹⁰⁸ requires the same treatment as

niruddhamaṇi (32.11cd); 909 the treatment of cipya⁹¹⁰ and a corrupted kunakha⁹¹¹ (32. 12a-c), alasa (32.12d-13c), ⁹¹² tilakālaka and maṣa (32.13d-14ab), ⁹¹³ carmakīla and jatumaṇi ⁹¹⁴ (32.14cd), lāñchana, vyaṅga and nīlikā (32.15); ⁹¹⁵ recipes against vyaṅga (32.16-17), vyaṅga and lāñchana (32.18-21); a recipe making the colour of the face equal (32.22); a recipe making the face resemble a lotus (32.23); these and similar preparations should be applied to the face, dependent on doṣa and season (32.24); a recipe against nīlikā, vyaṅga and (mukha)dūṣikā (32.25-26); a compound recipe, curing nīlikā, grey hair, vyaṅga, wrinkles, tilaka, and (mukha)dūṣikā (32.27-30); a compound formula, curing vyaṅga, mīlī, etc., and making the face resemble the moon (32.31-32); an errhine (32.33ab); prasupti should be treated like kuṣṭha due to vāta, and pitta; kotha should be treated like kuṣṭha (32.34), ⁹¹⁶

Chapter thirty-three (guhyarogavijñānīya) is about diseases of the genitals.

The subjects dealt with are: the aetiology of twenty-three of these diseases, i.e., upadamśa, etc. (33.1-5a); 917 upadamśa is of five types: arising from one dosa, blood, and the three dosas collectively (33.5b-d);⁹¹⁸ the characteristics of upadamsa due to vāta (33.5d-6ab), 919 pitta (33.6cd), 920 kapha (33.7ab), 921 blood (33.7cd), 922 and all the dosas (33.8); 923 upadamáa caused by blood is amenable to palliative treatment; the type arising from all three dosas has a lethal course (33.9ab); 924 the excited dosas, when located in the blood and flesh of the private parts, may generate, inside or outside the urinary channel (medhra), growths called māmsakīlaka, associated with itching and a slimy and bloody discharge; they resemble mushrooms when they are present on the female genitals (yoni); when these haemorrhoid-like growths (arsas) are neglected, they destroy the potency in males and the menses in females (33.9cd-1 lab); 925 the characteristics of the boils (pitikā) called sarsapikā, which arise from kapha and blood (33. 11cd-12ab), ⁹²⁶ those called avamantha, also arising from kapha and blood (33.12cd-13ab),⁹²⁷ and those called kumbhīkā, arising from pitta and blood (33.13cd);⁹²⁸ the boils called alajī are like those arising in prameha (33.14a); 929 the characteristics of those called uttamā, arising from pitta and blood (33.14bc), 930 and those called puskarikā (33.14d-15ab);⁹³¹ excessive rubbing (of the penis) with the hands results in a samvyūdhapitikā (33.15cd);⁹³² irritation by clothing leads to mrdita, which arises from vāta (33.16ab); 933 uneven, firm boils, called asthīlikā, also arise from vāta (33. 16cd); ⁹³⁴ the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of the disorder, affecting the prepuce (medhracarman), which is called nivrtta (33.17-18);⁹³⁵ two other disorders of the prepuce, called avapātikā (33.19ab)⁹³⁶ and niguddhamani (33.19cd-20); ⁹³⁷ the disease of the penis called grathita (33.21ab);⁹³⁸ the disease of the penis called sparśahāni, caused by blood, when this is corrupted by (the application of) śūkas (33. 21cd); 939 the characteristics of sataponaka, arising from vata and blood; in this disease the penis is covered with boils having minute openings (33.22); 940 tvakpāka arises from pitta and blood, ⁹⁴¹ māmsapāka from all the dosas (33.23); ⁹⁴² the characteristics of asrgarbuda of the penis (33.24); 943 the already described māmsārbuda 944 and vidradhi arise from the three dosas⁹⁴⁵ (33.25ab); the characteristics of tilakālaka, also arising from the three dosas (33.25cd-26ab); 946 four diseases, namely māmsārbuda, (tvak)pāka, vidradhi and tilakālaka should not be accepted for treatment, but the other diseases should be treated quickly (33.26cd–27ab), 947 the twenty disorders of the female genitals (yonivyāpad) arise from corrupted foods (33.27cd); 948 the aetiology and symptomatology of yonivyāpad due to vāta (33.28–31ab); 949 the aetiology, pathogenesis and symptomatology of the types called aticaraṇā (33.31cd), 950 prākcaraṇā (33.32), 951 udāvṛttā (33.33–34a), 952 jātaghnī (33.34b–d), 953 antarmukhī (33.35–36ab), 954 sūcīmukhī (33.36cd–37ab), 955 suṣkā (33.37cd–38ab), 956 vāminī (33.38cd–39ab), 957 ṣaṇḍhā (33.39cd–40ab), 958 mahāyoni (33.40cd–41), 959 paittikī (due to pitta) (33.42–43c), 960 raktayoni (33.43cd), 961 ślaiṣmikī (due to kapha) (33.44–45a), 962 lohitakṣayā (33.45), 963 pariplutā (33.46–48ab), 964 upaplutā (33.48cd–49a), 965 viplutā (33.49b–d), 966 karṇinī (33.50–51a), 967 and sāṃnipātikī (due to all three doṣas) (33.51); 968 these diseases of the female genitals lead to failure of conception, infertility, serious disorders like asṛgdara, haemorrhoids, gulma, etc., and to afflictions (ābādha) due to vāta, etc. (33.52–53), 869

Chapter thirty-four (guhyarogapratisedha) is about the treatment of the diseases of the genitals.

The subjects dealt with are: the general treatment of upadamsa (34.1-6c): 970 its specific treatment, according to the dosa(s) involved, 971 is like that of sopha (34.6d); ⁹⁷² the development of ripening should by all means be prevented, because this would lead to destruction of the penis (34.7); 973 the treatment of haemorrhoid-like growths (arsas) (34.8ab), sarṣapā⁹⁷⁴ and avamantha⁹⁷⁵ (34.8cd-9), kumbhīkā⁹⁷⁶ and ala ji 977 (34.10–11ab), and uttamā (34.1 lcd–12ab); 978 puskarā 979 and vyūdhā 980 require the same treatment as visarpa due to pitta (34.12cd); the treatment of tvakpaka, 981 sparśahāni 982 and mṛdita 983 (34.13), and asthīlikā (34.14ab); 984 the treatment of nivrtta (34.14cd-16); 985 avapātī should be managed in the same way (34.17ab); 986 the treatment of niruddha(mani) (34.17cd-19), 987 granthita 988 (34.20ab), 989 and śataponaka (34.20cd); 990 śonitārbuda 991 should be treated like vidradhi due to blood (34.21ab); ⁹⁹² treatments suitable in cases of vrana should, in accordance with the stage of the disease, also be applied (34.21cd); 993 cases of yonivyāpad should preferably be managed by means of measures against vata, because this dosa is always involved in this group of disorders; next, the other dosa(s) are to be counteracted (34.22-23); 994 the treatment of various types of yonivyāpad (34.24-27); 995 a medicated ghee against yonivyāpad due to vāta; this ghee makes conception possible (34.28-29); 996 a recipe against pain in the female genitals and some other disorders (34.30-31);997 two prescriptions against pain in the female genitals (34.32-34); 998 the treatment of yonivyāpad due to pitta (34.35); 999 a compound formula promoting fertility and curing many disorders (34.36-40); 1000 a formula with similar effects, particularly useful in disorders due to pitta (34.41); 1001 a formula that cures disorders by vata and pitta, and that results in conception (34.42-44ab): 1002 the treatment of raktayoni (34.44cd-45ab); 1003 the formula of pusyānugacūrna, honoured by Ātreya, to be administered in cases of yonidosa, rajodosa (menstrual disorders), and many other disorders (34.45cd-50ab); 1004 the general treatment of yonidosa (= yonivyāpad) due to kapha (34.50cd); 1005 a medicated oil against various types of yonivyāpad (34.51–54ab); ¹⁰⁰⁶ diverse prescriptions (34.54cd–55ab); ¹⁰⁰⁷ a prescription against sliminess (paicchilya) (34.55cd–56ab); ¹⁰⁰⁸ a prescription against bad-smelling, slimy and discharging genitals (34.56cd–57); ¹⁰⁰⁹ a prescription that is useful when the genitals are rigid and rough (34.58) ¹⁰¹⁰ or bad-smelling (34.59); ¹⁰¹¹ prescriptions against yonivyāpad due to kapha, pitta, vāta (34.60), ¹⁰¹² or all three doṣas (34.61ab); ¹⁰¹³ a woman will conceive when her genitals have thus been purified, when the male seed is pure and normal, and when a jīva approaches (the uterus) (34.61cd–62ab); ¹⁰¹⁴ a male whose organ (indriya) is corrupted, although he has been subjected to pañcakarman, should be treated with the remedies suitable in his case (34.62cd–63ab); ¹⁰¹⁵ the fornula of the medicated ghee called phalasarpis, curing all disorders of the female and male genitals (yoni- and śukrapradoṣa), leading to the conception of a male child (pumsavana), and driving away demons threatening the child (34.63cd–67). ¹⁰¹⁶

Chapter thirty-five (vişapratişedha) is concerned with poisons (vişa) and the treatment of poisoning.

The subjects dealt with are: the mythic origin of poison (visa); its two main types: sthāvara (of vegetable origin) and jangama (of animal origin) (35.1-3); 1017 sthāvara poisons, present in tubers and bulbs, and very potent, are: kālakūta, indravatsa, śrngī, hālāhala, etc. (35.4); 1018 the severely acting jangama poisons are present in the fangs of snakes, spiders, etc. (35.5ab); 1019 sthāvara and jangama poisons are collectively called akrtrima (not artificially produced) (35.5cd); artificial (krtrima) poisons, called gara, are prepared from various drugs; according to the power of the mixture (yogavaśāt), they kill within a short time, after a long time, or after a very long time, and bring about various disorders (35.6-7ab); 1020 poisons possess the following properties: tīksna, usna, rūksa, viśada, vyavāyin, āśukārin, laghu, vikāsin, sūksma, and avyaktarasa; they are not subject to digestion (35.7cd-8ab); 1021 these properties are contrary to those of ojas; for this reason, and because vata and pitta dominate in them, poisons quickly destroy life (35.8cd-9ab); a poisonous substance, after entering the body, corrupts the blood first, and, subsequently, vata, pitta and kapha, together with their seats; then, after reaching the heart, it destroys the body (35.9cd-10); the symptoms of the seven stages (vega) of poisoning by a sthavara substance (35.11-16); 1022 the treatment required in each of these stages (35.17-20); 1023 recipes for preparations to be administered in the intervals between these stages (35.21-23); 1024 the formula of the antidote called candrodaya, to be prepared by a ritually pure virgin, clothed in white, during (the conjunction of the moon with) the constellation Pusya, while the physician has to utter a mantra; a second mantra should be pronounced after the preparation, in order to make the drug effective in providing santi and syastyayana (35.24-32): 1025 the characteristics of the weakened poison called dusīvisa; the symptoms it brings about; the explanation of its name (35.33-37); 1026 preliminary treatment; the formula of dūsīvisāri, effective against poisoning by dūsīvisa (35.38-40ab); 1027 the local and general symptoms caused by a poisoned arrow (35.40cd-45ab); 1028 the treatment to be applied (35.45cd-48ab); ¹⁰²⁹ gara is sometimes administered by women to their husbands, or by those living at the court to a king (35.48cd-49ab); 1030 gara consists of a mixture of animal excreta and the ashes of various incompatible plants; it has a weak action (35.49cd–50ab); ¹⁰³¹ the symptoms of poisoning by gara (35.50cd–55ab); its treatment (35.55cd–59); vişasamkaţa, a dangerous condition, arising when the patient's constitution, the season in which the symptoms appear, the patient's diet, the doṣa and dūṣya mainly involved, etc., correspond to similar characteristics of the poison (35.60); factors leading to an increase of the effects of a poison (35.61–63ab); ¹⁰³² poisons become stronger during the rainy season, weaker when this has ended (35.63cd–64); poisoning should speedily be treated, after taking into consideration all the factors influencing the course of the illness (35.65); the treatment of poisoning with a substance of the nature ofkapha (35.66), ¹⁰³³ pitta (35.67), ¹⁰³⁴ and vāta (35.69ab); ¹⁰³⁵ any drug used in the treatment of poisoning should contain ghee (37.69ab); ghee is the best remedy in all cases of poisoning and in all the stages, but particularly when vāta is very strong (35.69cd–70ab); poison located in a seat of kapha can easily be cured; located in a seat of pitta, it is curable with difficulty; located in a seat of vāta, it is extremely difficult to cure or incurable (35.70cd–71).

Chapter thirty-six (sarpaviṣapratiṣedha) is about venomous snakes and the treatment of snake-bites.

The subjects dealt with are: the earthly (bhauma) snakes, which are of many kinds; they belong to three main groups, called darvīkara, mandalin and rājīmant (36.1-2ab); 1036 their venom possesses the properties rūksa, katuka, amla, usņa, svādu, and śītala; these properties, in the mentioned order, and in pairs of two, lead to excitement of vāta, pitta and kapha (36.2cd-3ab); ¹⁰³⁷ the three stages of the life cycle ¹⁰³⁸ and the three main seasons in which the venom of the three groups of snakes is present in abundance; the venom of snakes of mixed breed (vyantara) is abundantly present in the transitional periods (sandhi) of these seasons (36.3cd-4ab); the characteristics of darvīkara, marıdalin and rājīmant snakes (36.4cd-6); 1039 the gaudhera, which descends from a godhā and is a quadruped, has the same kind of venom as a darvīkara (36.7a-c); 1040 the snakes of mixed breed have mixed characteristics; therefore they excite the three dosas (36.7cd-8ab); 1041 circumstances inciting snakes to bite; the quantity of venom increases in the order in which these circumstances are mentioned (36.8cd-9); 1042 treatment should be carried out in agreement with these teachings (36.10ab); snakes of mixed breed, having a bad nature, reside near roads (36.10cd); the characteristics of a series of types of bite: tundāhata, vyālīdha, vyālupta, dastaka, and dastanipīdita; the first two types do not contain poison; the last type is incurable (36.11–14ab); ¹⁰⁴³ snake venom does not corrupt the body as long as it has not reached the blood, ¹⁰⁴⁴ but, even when a very small quantity has reached it, the poison spreads like a sheet of oil on water (36.14cd-15ab); touching a snake may already excite vāta in someone who is afraid of snakes; this condition is called sarpāngābhihata (36.15cd-16ab); ¹⁰⁴⁵ the symptoms presented by someone hurt by some animal on rough ground or in the dark and therefore afraid that the animal was a snake; this condition is called śańkāvisa (36.16cd-17); 1046 the general characteristics of venomous and non-venomous bites (36.18); 1047 the symptoms of the seven stages of poisoning by the bite of a darvikara (36.19-22), 1048 those of the first five stages of that of a mandalin (36.23-24)¹⁰⁴⁹ and a rājila (= rājīmant) (36.25-27a); ¹⁰⁵⁰ the symptoms of

the sixth and seventh stages are like those of the bite of a darvīkara (36.27b); 1051 the first five stages only can be treated (36.27cd); circumstances weakening the venom of a snake (36.28–30ab); ¹⁰⁵² circumstances making a bite incurable (36.30cd–32ab); ¹⁰⁵³ symptoms presented by incurable patients (36.32cd-37ab); 1054 when such symptoms are absent, the patient should be treated as soon as possible (36.37cd-38ab); measures to be taken immediately by physician and patient, before a hundred matra have passed after the bite (36.38cd-41); 1055 ligation of a limb with an arista, proximal to the bite (36.42–43), followed by excision (36.44); ¹⁰⁵⁶ cauterization may be carried out, except in bites by a mandalin, because such a snake is of a pittala nature (36.45); 1057 the treatment of a mandalin bite (36.46–48ab); ¹⁰⁵⁸ when the poison has already penetrated and spread through the body, bloodletting is the best remedial measure, followed by cooling applications which stop the bleeding (36.48cd-53ab); 1059 measures protecting the heart (hrdayāvarana) (36.53cd-54); 1060 emetics should be administered when, in spite of treatment, more serious symptoms appear, 1061 or, as an alternative, more specific therapy should be initiated (36.55-57ab); drug treatment of a bite by a darvīkara (36.57cd-58ab), 1062 a black snake (kṛṣṇasarpa) (36.58cd-59), 1063 a rājīmant (36.60-61ab), ¹⁰⁶⁴ and a mandalin (36.61cd-62); ¹⁰⁶⁵ the formula of a cooling paste, called himavant, to be applied to a mandalin bite (36.63-64); a medicated drink to be administered to persons bitten by a mandalin (36.65); the formula of the drug called astānga, useful in bites by a gonasa snake 1066 (36.66-67ab); prescriptions useful in a rājīmant bite (36.67cd-68ab), the bite of a kārıdacitrā 1067 (36.68cd-70ab), the bites of snakes of mixed breed (36.70cd-71), the bites of any snake, even a bite of Taksaka (36.72–73); 1068 the treatment of each of the seven stages of poisoning due to the bite of a darvikara (36.74–78): 1069 the treatment of the third and sixth stages of poisoning due to the bite of a mandalin (36.79), 1070 and that of the first and sixth stages after the bite of a rajila (36.80-81ab); 1071 the treatment of the stages left undescribed is like that after a darvīkara bite (36.81cd); a mild form of treatment, excluding bloodletting, is advisable in pregnant women, children, and aged persons (36.82ab); 1072 a prescription effective against all poisons (36.82cd-83); 1073 a prescription against various types of poisoning and a series of diseases (3.84–85); a poison should completely be removed from the body in order to prevent a new wave of action or the development of dūsīvisa (36.86); the treatment of excited vata, pitta and kapha after elimination of a poison (36.87-88); 1074 the treatment of sarpāngābhihata and śankāvisa (36.89-90ab); 1075 protecting measures against snakes and their bites (36.90cd-92); 1076 measures frightening snakes away, particularly at night (36.93). 1077

Chapter thirty-seven (kīṭalūtādiviṣapratiṣedha) is about the bites of poisonous insects (kīṭa), spiders (lūtā), etc., and their treatment.

The subjects dealt with are: k̄tas originate from the excrements, urine, seed, eggs, and decomposing dead bodies of snakes; they are of four types, when classified according to their relationship to the doṣas (37.1); ¹⁰⁷⁸ the symptoms caused by the bites of k̄tas mainly associated with vāta, pitta or kapha singly, and with all three doṣas jointly (37.2–4ab); ¹⁰⁷⁹ the stages of poisoning are like those caused by a snake-bite; the general symptoms caused by the bite of a k̄ta (37.4cd–5); ¹⁰⁸⁰ the local symptoms of a

bite by a scorpion (vrścika) (37.6–7ab); 1081 the poison of scorpions arising from the putrefying dung of cattle, etc., objects besmeared with a poisonous substance, and decomposing dead bodies of snakes, is mild, moderate, and strong respectively (37.7cd-8ab); ¹⁰⁸² the distinctive morphological characteristics of these three groups of scorpions (37.8cd-10); 1083 the general effects of the bite of a scorpion with a strong poison (37.11-12); 1084 the symptoms produced by the bite of an uccitinga, a small animal, also called ustradhūma and rātricāra (37.13-14); 1085 vāta and pitta predominate in kītas; kapha predominates in kanabhas and unduras, vāta in scorpions and ustradhūmakas (37.15); 1086 determination of the main dosa(s) involved is decisive for the treatment to be followed (37.16); 1087 the symptoms of poisoning with a predominance of vata, pitta and kapha (37.17–19); 1088 the treatment of these three conditions (37.20–21); 1089 rules for the general treatment of kīta-bites (37.22–23ab); ¹⁰⁹⁰ the recipe for a fumigation, taught by Kāśyapa, useful in all poisonous bites (37.23cd-24ab); any anti poison measure should be tried, including those against snake-bites (37.24cd-25ab); 1091 prescriptions against kīta-bites (37.25cd-27ab); 1092 the formula of daśāngāgada against kīta-bites, devised by Kāśyapa (37.27cd-28); prescriptions against a scorpion-bite (37. 29-42); 1093 a formula against the bites of kītas, snakes, spiders, unduras, and scorpions (37.43); a prescription, taught by Jina, against the bites of ratrikas 1094 and scorpions (37.44); more dangerous than kītas are spiders; these are of sixteen kinds, 1095 although others distinguish twenty-eight, others again even more kinds; some regard them as attendants of Sahasraraśmi (= Sūrva) and declare that they are of thousand differentkinds (37.45-46ab); 1096 spiders, however, are all the same in being able to cause numerous complications (37.46cd); spiders are classified according to their relationship with the dosas, because it is troublesome to distinguish and name them (37.47); the bites in which one dosa predominates are difficult to cure; the bites associated with all the dosas are incurable (37.48ab); ¹⁰⁹⁷ the local and general symptoms of a spider bite with a predominance of pitta, kapha and vata (37.48cd-50); the signs belonging to each of the dosas are also to be taken into consideration (37.51ab); the local and general symptoms of an incurable bite (37.51cd-53); 1098 usually, all three dosas are (more or less) involved in a spider bite (37.54ab); three degrees of toxicity are distinguished; when the bite is neglected, death occurs within a week, ten days, or a fortnight respectively (37.54cd-55ab); 1099 the local and general symptoms caused by the bite of a poisonous spider (37.55cd-58ab); 1100 a spider emits its poison in eight ways: by means of its breath (śvāsa), fangs (damstrā), excrements, urine, seed, saliva, claws, and oestrous discharge (ārtava); chiefly, it does so by means of its mouth parts (37.58cd-59ab); 1101 spiders bite in the region above the navel, kītas do so above and below that region (37.59cd); pieces of clothing which have been corrupted by their poison cause disorders through their contact with the body (37.60ab); the bite of a poisonous spider produces slight symptoms during the second half of the first day; the symptoms that appear during the second to seventh days; this mode of action is typical of a poison with the highest degree of toxicity; the mode of action of less toxic poisons can be deduced (37.60cd-65); 1102 the effects of the poison subside after three weeks (37.66ab); the treatment should begin with excision, followed by cauterization, 1103 unless the spider belongs to those with a predominance of pitta (37.66cd-67ab); 1104 contra-indications

for excision and cauterization (37.67cd–68ab); ¹¹⁰⁵ the course of treatment after cauterization (37.68cd–70ab); ¹¹⁰⁶ the formula of padmakāgada, useful in all spider- and kīṭa-bites (37.70cd–71ab), and the even more efficacious campakāgada (37.71cd–72ab); another, related prescription (37.72cd); the formulae of the antidotes (agada) called mandara and gandhamādana (37.73–74); purgatives to be prescribed to patients with an abundance of doṣas (37.75–77ab); when the burning sensation and swelling have disappeared, measures should be taken which make the kamikā ¹¹⁰⁷ fall off (37.77cd); ¹¹⁰⁸ prescriptions that promote this falling off (37.78–80ab); ¹¹⁰⁹ the treatment to be adopted when the kamikā is falling off (37.80cd); all fatty drugs should be prepared with ghee, for oils would increase the effects of a poison (37.81); drugs active against all spiderbites (37.82–86). ¹¹¹⁰

Chapter thirty-eight (mūṣikālarkaviṣapratiṣedha) is concerned with the bites of rats and mice (mūṣika) and mad dogs (alarka) and the treatment of disorders caused by their poisons.

The subjects dealt with are: the eighteen kinds of mūsika: lālana, capala, putra, hasira, cikkira, ajira, kasāyadanta, kulaka, kokila, kapila, asita, aruna, śabala, śveta, kapota, palitondura, chucchundara, and rasāla (38.1-2);1111 the local and general symptoms caused by contact with the semen (sultra) of a mūsika (38.3-5); 1112 the patient is difficult to cure when the poison of an ākhu (= mūsika) has pervaded the body (38.6ab); signs indicating incurability (38.6cd-7ab); signs indicating that the patient should be given up (38.7cd-8ab); the pathogenesis and symptomatology of rabies in dogs (38.8cd-10ab); 1113 the local and general symptoms caused by the bite of a rabid dog (38.10cd-11ab); 1114 the same symptoms may be brought about by the bites of a jackal (śrgāla), mule (aśvatara), horse (aśva), bear (rksa), dvīpin (leopard), tiger (vyāghra), wolf (vrka), and other animals (38.1 lcd-12ab); 1115 the symptoms appearing when the wound contains poison; their absence points to a non-poisonous bite (38.12cd-14ab); 1116 someone who, after having been bitten, imitates the movements and sounds of the animal, will die, as well as someone seeing the animal unexpectedly in a mirror or reflected on the surface of water (38.14cd-15ab); 1117 someone who, also when not having been bitten, is afraid of water, its sound, touch and sight, should, as suffering from jalasamtrāsa (hydrophobia), be given up (38.15cd–16ab); 1118 the place of the bite of a mūsika should, as soon as possible, be cauterized (38.16cd-17ab); cauterization should be followed by bloodletting; afterwards, a paste should be applied (38.17cd-18ab); 1119 the recipe of another paste (38.18cd-19ab); subsequent treatment (38.19cd-20); emetics (38.21-23ab); 1120 purgatives (38.23cd); 1121 other types of preparations (38.24-32); 1122 a remnant of mūsika poison, not eliminated, will become active when rain clouds appear, or in the seasons suited to the excitation of a particular dosa (38.33); 1123 any suitable treatment should then be applied, as well as those measures which counteract dūsīvisa (38.34); 1124 the treatment of the bite of a rabid dog (38.35-38ab); 1125 a person bitten by a mad dog should also take a medicated bath, accompanied by a mantra (38.38cd); 1126 the symptoms caused by wounds by the nails or teeth of bipeds or quadrupeds (38.39); the treatment of these wounds (38.40). 1127

Chapter thirty-nine (rasāyanavidhi) is concerned with elixirs conferring longevity.

The subjects dealt with are: the general effects of a rasavana (39.1-2ab): 1128 the etymology of rasāvana (39,2cd); 1129 a rasāvana or vājīkarana should permanently be used in the first two stages of the life cycle by a self-subdued human being who has undergone sudation, bloodletting and purification (39.3-4); 1130 rasāyana treatment is of two types: kutīprāveśika (within an enclosed space), which is the best method, and vātātapika (in the open air) (39.5); 1131 the construction of a suitable room (kutī) (39.6-7); 1132 the requisites for persons wanting to submit to the treatment (39.8-10): 1133 preparatory procedures, aiming at complete bodily purification (39.11-14); 1134 a rasāyana preparation to be taken once daily, in the evening; the Vaikhānasas, Vālakhilyas, and other ascetics experienced the beneficial effects of this rasāyana, devised by Brahmā (39.15-23); 1135 another rasāyana, to be taken daily, in the morning (39.24-26); 1136 this treatment confers a life span of hundred years without disease and old age (39.27); 1137 a preparation to be taken during a month, conferring a life span of a thousand years (39.28-32); 1138 the preparation of cyavanaprāśa, which rejuvenated Cyavana; it cures many diseases, leads to a long life span, and strengthens virility (39.33-41); 1139 other rasāyanas (39.42-47); the formulae of the medicated ghee called pañcāravinda, which restores one's strength and virility (39.48), and another ghee, called catuhkuvalaya, which improves one's mental faculties (39.49); the formula of a compound rasāyana (39.50-53); 1140 rasāyanas prepared with the plants called nagabala (39.54-55), 1141 goksuraka (39.56-57), and vārāhīkanda (39.58-59); 1142 a series of medicinal plants with the same properties: vidārī, atibalā, balā, madhuka, vāyasī, two kinds of śreyasī, yuktā, pathyā, dhātrī, sthirā, amrtā, mandūkī, śaṅkhakusumā, vājigandhā, and śatāvarī (39.60-61); 1143 another useful plant is citraka; the varieties with vellow, white and dark flowers possess a stronger action in the mentioned order (39.62); citraka preparations curing particular disorders (39.63-65); a preparation with bhallātaka fruits, to be taken first in increasing, later in decreasing fixed numbers, during fixed periods of time; this course of treatment improves digestion and cures a series of diseases (39.66-71); 1144 another bhallataka preparation with the same effects (39.72-74); 1145 more recipes with bhallātaka fruits (39.75-81); 1146 bhallātaka fruits cure any type of kapha disease and are also effective in constipation (vibandha) (39.82); 1147 things to be avoided during all rasayana treatments (39.83); preparations with tuvaraka oil which cure kustha (39.84–93); 1148 similar preparations having rasāyana effects (39.94–95); 1149 the use of pippalī as a rasāyana (39.96-98ab); 1150 the pippalīvardhamāna procedure (39.98cd-102);¹¹⁵¹ rasāyana effects can also be obtained by drinking some water, each morning, during a year, out of an iron vessel, daubed with pippalī (39.103); a series of parts of other plants that can be employed in the same way (39.104–105); 1152 the described rasavanas may also be used in combination with milk; drunk in that way, their effect is doubled (39.106); preparations with somarājī, which act as rasāyanas and cure kustha, as well as digestive disorders (39.107-110); 1153 the mythic origin of garlic (rasona, lasuna); brāhmanas do not use it, because it has arisen from the body of the Daitya called Rāhu; yet, having originated from the amrta, it is the most excellent rasāyana (39.111-112); 1154 the way in which the expressed juice of garlic may be used

(39.113-121); the suitable dosages (39.122); the articles of diet to be taken after digestion of the garlic (39.123–124); articles of diet prepared with garlic (39.125–126); garlic is the best medicine in disorders caused by vata, either singly, or when covered (āvrta), except when covered by pitta and rakta (39.127); contra-indications (39.128); after the use of garlic a mild purgative is recommended, in order to prevent the excitation of pitta (39.129); the origin of silājatu, a substance of six varieties, which have the taste of one of the six metals (dhātu) (39.130); 1155 the properties of śilājatu; 1156 the lauha variety deserves particular esteem (39.131); 1157 the characteristics of the best variety (39.132);1158 the preparation of śilājatu for medicinal use by soaking it in water, drying it, and then steeping it in a warm inspissated decoction; when this mixture has become homogeneous and dry, it should be thrown into an amount of the decoction again; this process has to be repeated seven times (39.133-135); 1159 the way to use this śilā jatu preparation (39.136–138); 1160 the dosages (39.139); 1161 when properly used, śilājatu works as a rasāyana (39.140-141ab); 1162 articles of diet to be avoided during its employment (39.141cd); 1163 śilājatu cures any curable disease; when properly employed in health, it provides a large amount of ūriā (39,142):1164 the kutīpraveśa type of rasāyana suits those with leisure who have servants; others should be satisfied with sauryamārutika methods (39.143);1165 measures of the latter type, easy to be carried out and without the risk of complications when incorrectly applied, will be described next (39.144); a long series of this type of prescriptions (39.145–164); 1166 the rules for a rasayana procedure including the use of 360 pills during a full year (39.165–168); the preparation, use and effects of the medicated ghee called nārasimhaghrta (39.169-173); the effects of this ghee, when additional rules are observed (39.174-176); those rasayanas have been described which can actually be prepared, which are effective and suited to the yuga we live in; many other rasayanas, difficult to prepare, are omitted (39.177); when, during rasayana treatment, a disease appears, one should employ those measures which are suitable to the case and stop the ongoing therapy (39.178); 1167 the characteristics of those who continually use a rasāyana (39.179-180); 1168 the behaviour that is equivalent to a perfect rasāyana (39.181).

Chapter forty (vā jīkaranavidhi) is concerned with aphrodisiacs.

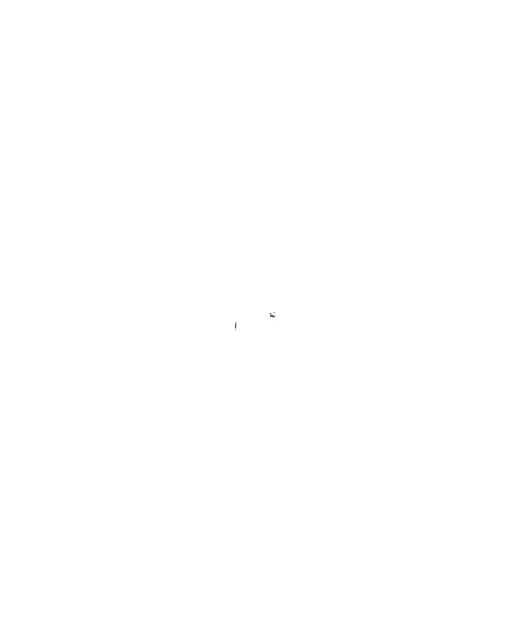
The subjects dealt with are: the aims of those using an aphrodisiac (40.1–2ab); ¹¹⁶⁹ the effects of an aphrodisiac (40.2cd–3); ¹¹⁷⁰ those leading a virtuous life in agreement with the dharma are not in need of aphrodisiacs, but those with less sattva may make use of them (40.4–6); preparatory treatment (40.7–8); ¹¹⁷¹ the joys of parenthood (40.9–11); ¹¹⁷² the preparation of a compound aphrodisiac (40.12cd–21 ab); ¹¹⁷³ several aphrodisiac prescriptions (40.2lcd–34); ¹¹⁷⁴ the properties of substances and other things that stimulate the libido and increase the potency (40.35–36); ¹¹⁷⁵ a long description of the type of woman best suited to rouse a man and make him potent (40.37–40); ¹¹⁷⁶ one should make love according to the rules laid down in the Kāmasūtra, taking into consideration the appropriateness of place and time, one's strength and potency, and without acting contrary to medical prescriptions (40.41); a list of things that mentally promote potency (40.42–45); things helpful to achieve one's aim (40.46–47); ¹¹⁷⁷ the best

medicine in a long list of diseases (40.48–56); ¹¹⁷⁸ a clyster is the best remedial measure in diseases due to vāta, a purgative in those due to pitta, an emetic in those due to kapha (40.57ab); honey subdues kapha, ghee pitta, and oil vāta (40.57cd); ¹¹⁷⁹ for these reasons one should the medicines, mentioned as the best ones, prepare as suited to the patient and the situation he is in (40.58).

After listening to Ātreya's teachings, Agniveśa, esteemed by Bheda and the other sages, remained unsatisfied; he asked why some patients, provided with all things necessary to recovery, die, whereas others, devoid of these things, attain full health (40. 59–62ab). In reply to this question, (Ātreya) Punarvasu gives a discourse on the factors influencing the course of a disease and the outcome of the theraputic process; he concludes that the restricted power of medicine should be accepted, but that this science, nevertheless, holds out hope for suffering mankind, when practised by honest, learned and experienced physicians (40.62cd–77). 1180

The study of the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya is recommended. The work is described as being based on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha (40.78–80). The results to be obtained by studying it are mentioned (40.81–82). The excellence of the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya derives from the incorporation of the contributions of both Caraka and Suśruta (40.83–84). Someone unwilling to accept the counsel to study the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya, should laboriously go through the primordial treatise (expounded by Brahmā) and devote his whole life to it (40.85). One should not give credit to the words of other teachers, but hold to what has been said (in this treatise) by someone who regards himself as impartial (40.86–87). The foremost criterion for the acceptibility of teachings is not that they have been exposed by sages, but the well-chosen way of expressing them (subhāṣita) (40.88).

The treatise ends with the wish that the *Hṛdaya*, comprising the essence (hṛdaya) of the whole of the ocean of āyurvedic literature, be conducive to the welfare of the world (40.89).



Part 4 Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha



Chapter 1 Sütrasthāna¹

The mangala of the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha is addressed to the Ekavaidya, to those conversant with the medical tradition, to Pitāmaha,² and other (deities)³ (1.1).⁴

The descent of āyurveda from the world of the gods to earth is more elaborately described than in the *Hṛdaya*. The line of transmission in the divine realm is identical, but the *Samgraha* relates that Indra gives the āyurveda, characterized as an upaveda of the *Atharvaveda*, to a group of sages consisting of Punarvasu, Dhanvantari, Bharadvāja, Nimi, Kāśyapa, Kaśyapa, and (Ā)lambāyana. On the basis of Indra's teachings, each of these seven sages wrote a treatise on the eightfold āyurveda, dealing with kāya, bāla, graha, ūrdhvānga, śalya, daṃṣṭrā, jarā, and vṛṣa⁵ (1.4–10). Thereupon, they passed their knowledge on to a group of pupils: Agniveśa, Hārīta, Bheda, Māṇḍavya, Suśruta, Karāla, and others, who, in their turn, composed a medical treatise (1.11–13ab).

The Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha is described as a comprehensive textbook, extracted from earlier specialized works; it was written with a view to meet the needs of the present age of the world (1.13cd-18). ⁷ Kāyacikitsā will be its favourite subject (1.19). ⁸ Every syllable of the work will be in conformity with tradition (1.20). ⁹

The verse on the three doṣas of the *Hṛdaya* (Sū.1.6cd-7ab) is expanded by adding that the doṣas may be subject to increase (vṛddhi) or decrease (kṣaya), or maintain a balanced state (sāmya); increase and decrease may be present to a high (utkṛṣṭa), moderate (madhya) or slight (alpa) degree (1.21-22).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.1.23-28ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.1.7cd-12.$

Six types of samsarga and ten types of samnipāta¹⁰ are briefly referred to (1.28cd).¹¹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.1.29 = A.h.S\bar{u}.1.13.$

Disorders described as arising from rasa, etc., are actually brought about by dosas staying in rasa, etc.; their characterization as rasaja, etc., is to be interpreted as a figurative expression (upacāra) 12 (1.30). 13

The chief function of each of the seven dhātus is mentioned (1.31). The dhātus maintain the body and each dhātu nourishes the subsequent one of the series (1.32ab). ¹⁴

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.1.32cd-37ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.1.14-18.$

Guṇas added to the series of twenty of the *Hṛdaya* are the objects of the senses, and the guṇas called vyavāyin and vikāṣin (1.37cd); vyavāyin and vikāṣin are defined (1.38). Some authorities are reported to regard vyavāyin as a high degree of the guṇa called sara, and vikāṣin as a high degree of tīkṣṇa (1.39ab). Sattva, rajas and tamas are the three mahāguṇas (1.39cd).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.1.40-47 = A.h.S\bar{u}.1.19-26.$

The verses of the *Hrdaya* on the four limbs of treatment (pādacatuṣṭaya) (Sū.1.27–29) and the classification of diseases according to their degree of curability (Sū.1.30–35ab) do not form part of A.s.Sū.1.¹⁷

The chapter ends with a table of contents of the Astāngasamgraha (1.48-64). 18

Chapter two (śisyopanayanīya) 19 has no parallel in the Āstāṅgaḥṛdaya.

The subjects dealt with are: the qualities required in a student (2.2-4ab); circumstances unsuitable to study and some rules for proper study (2.4cd-5); rules for the student's behaviour (2.6-7ab); requirements for an accomplished physician (2.7cd-18ab); ²⁰ types of patients to be rejected on account of moral defects, etc. (2.18cd-20). ²¹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.2.21-23 = A.h.S\bar{u}.1.27-29.$

More important than the four limbs of treatment (pādacatuṣṭaya) are the moral qualities of a physician (2.24–25ab).

A.s.S \bar{u} .2.25cd-28ab = A.h.S \bar{u} .1, additional verse and 31—32.

The characterization of easily curable diseases is slightly expanded (2.28cd). The characterization of diseases which are difficult to cure (2.29), amenable to palliative treatment only (2.30–31), or incurable (2.32–33ab), differs from that found in the *Hṛdaya*.

Treatment should be initiated only after assessment of the degree of curability of a disease (2.33cd-34ab).

Physicians are warned that curable diseases may become incurable under particular circumstances (2.34cd-36ab).

The importance of the physician's ethical standards is stressed again (2.36cd-38).

Chapter three (dinacaryā) is much longer (127 verses) than the corresponding chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.2; 48 verses).

The rules for the proper way of getting up in the morning, attending to one's natural urges, sipping water from the palm of one's hand (ācāma) (3.2–12ab),²² and brushing one's teeth (3.12cd–21)²³ are elaborate. Scraping of the tongue (jihvānirlekhana) is added to the daily toilet (3.16cd–17).²⁴

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.3.18 = A.h.S\bar{u}.2.4.$

Trees and shrubs unsuitable for tooth-brushing are mentioned (3.19–21ab). Tooth-brushes and sandals should not be made with the wood of the palāśa and asana (3.21cd). The lower teeth should be brushed first. After cleansing the teeth, the eyes should be washed while holding water in one's mouth; this water should be cold in summer and autumn (3.22).²⁵ The gods and one's elders (vṛddha) should be paid homage to; one should be attentive to the maṅgalāṣṭaśata ²⁶ and look at a golden vessel filled with ghee (3.23).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.3.24ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.2.5ab.$

The effects of applying a collyrium are described (3.24cd-25ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.3.25cd-26ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.2.5cd-6ab.$

Anutaila²⁷ should be used as an errhine, followed by holding a gandūṣa in the mouth;²⁸ the beneficial effects of these practices are described (3.26cd-30). Next,

smoking, 29 the application of fragrant substances, putting on a garland, etc., are mentioned as beneficial (3.31–33ab).

Rules are given for the use of clothing, garlands and footwear (3.33cd-34).

The beneficial effects of keeping fragrant substances in the mouth and of betel chewing are described (3.35–38ab).³⁰

After the performance of these activities, one should begin the daily work suited to one's occupation (3.38cd-40). Rules for conduct are given (3.41-42),³¹ followed by a long series of presciptions and prohibitions (3.43-54ab).³²

The beneficial effects of abhyanga are described (3.54cd-57),³³ followed by³⁴ those of abhyanga of the head (3.58cd),³⁵ filling the ears with oil (3.59ab),³⁶ and abhyanga of the feet (3.59cd-60ab).³⁷

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.3.60cd = A.h.S\bar{u}.2.9cd.$

Physical exercise (vyāyāma) is defined (3.61ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.3.61cd-69ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.2.10-17.$

Additional rules related to bathing are formulated (3.69cd-73).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.3.74 = A.h.S\bar{u}.2.18$.

Rules are given concerning the proper food to be taken and its consumption (3.75-79). ³⁸

The proper way of passing the afternoon leisure time is described (3.80), followed by a long series of prescriptions and prohibitions regarding daily behaviour (3.81–125), ³⁹ for a small part also found in the *Hṛdaya*. ⁴⁰ The results of observing the rules are found in the concluding verses (3.126–127).

Chapter four (\underline{r} tucary \bar{a}) differs considerably from the corresponding chapter of the \underline{Hr} -daya ($S\bar{u}$.3).

The chapter opens with an exposition (in prose) on time (kāla) (4.2). The units of time are dealt with (in prose), the six seasons, the months, and the two halves of the year (4.3-4).

The units of time, absentfrom the *Hṛdaya*, resemble those of Suśruta. ⁴¹ Mātrā is a synonym of akṣinimeṣa; ⁴² the nāḍikā is added and said to be 20 1/10 kalā; ⁴³ two nā-ḍikās form a muhūrta; ⁴⁴ the yāma is added too and said to consist of 3 3/4 muhūrta; ⁴⁵ a day and a night consist of four muhūrta each. ⁴⁶

The first month of the year is Mārgaśīrṣa, while it is Māgha in the *Hrdaya*. The cycle of the seasons begins with hemanta, whereas śiśira is the first season in the *Hrdaya*.

The first half of the year is called udagayana or \bar{a} dāna, the second half dakṣiṇāyana or visarga.

The \bar{a} gneya character of \bar{a} d \bar{a} na and the saumya character of visarga are described (in prose, concluded by a verse) (4.5-7).

The seasons are described, ⁴⁸ their effects on the human organism, and the regimen to be observed (in verse): hemanta (4.8–19ab), śiśira (4.19cd–20ab), vasanta (4.20cd–27ab), grīsma (4.27cd–38ab), varsāh (4.38cd–49), and śarad (4.50–60ab). ⁴⁹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.4.60cd-62ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.3.57cd-59.$

Two concluding verses are added (4.62cd-64).

Chapter five (rogānutpādanīya) largely agrees with the corresponding chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.4).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.5.1-22 = A.h.S\bar{u}.4.1-21ab.$

A.s.Sū.5.23 replaces A.h.Sū.4.21cd, without changing the contents.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.5.24-25 = A.h.S\bar{u}.4.22-23.$

Verses added (5.26–31) describe the numerous bad effects arising in those who neglect to remove impurities from their bodies.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.5.32-43 = A.h.S\bar{u}.4.26-36.$

Two concluding verses (4.44-45) are added.

Chapter six (dravadravyavi jñānīya) is much longer than the corresponding chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.5). 50

Many kinds of water are described (6.2-50). 51

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.2 = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.1.$

A.s.Sū.6.3 is added to the description of rainwater (gangambu).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.4-6ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.2-4ab.$

A.s.S \bar{u} .6.6cd-7ab replaces A.h.S \bar{u} .5.4cd and is more elaborate on the same subject. ⁵²

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.7cd = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.5ab.$

Three additional verses (6.8-10) are about the relationships between the colour of the soil and the taste of the water fallen on it, and about the relationships between soils with predominance of one of the mahābhūtas and the taste of the water. ⁵³

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.11ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.5cd.$

A.s.Sū.6.1 lcd-15ab are added to the text of the *Hrdaya*; they deal with the properties of the water from wells, tanks, etc. (6.1 lcd-15ab). ⁵⁴

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.15cd-19 = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.8cd-12.$

A.s.Sū.6.20-22ab corresponds to A.h.Sū.5.6-7ab.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.22cd-23ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.7cd-8ab.$

The bad effects of polluted water are described (6.23cd-24), ⁵⁵ followed by measures to purify it (prasādana) (6.25-27ab). ⁵⁶

Rules are given about the proper use of water, cold, tepid or warm, dependent on the condition of a patient; prohibitions are also formulated (6.27cd-45ab). ⁵⁷ The properties of water boiled after placing a noble metal or (semi-)precious stone in it are separately dealt with (6.45cd-49).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.50 = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.19.$

A.s.Sū.6.5lab replaces A.h.Sū.5.20ab.

The section on milk (6.51-75) and dairy produce is slightly longer than in the *Hrdaya*.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.51cd-59 = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.20cd-29ab.$

Two verses (6.60-61) on the effects of milk on persons with particular habits are added

 $A.h.S\bar{u}.6.62-66 = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.29cd-35ab.$

A.h.Sū.6.67 replaces A.h.Sū.5.35cd.

 $A.h.S\bar{u}.6.68-72ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.36-40.$

An ardhaśloka on old ghee (6.72cd) is added, followed by one on ghṛtamaṇḍa⁵⁸ (6.73ab).

A.s.Sū.6.73cd-74ab replaces A.h.Sū.5.41ab; dadhikūcīkā is mentioned instead of the kūrcikā of the *Hṛdaya*, moraṭa instead of moraṇa; takrapiṇḍaka and kṣīraśāka⁵⁹ are added items.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.74cd = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.41cd.$

A.s.Siī 6.75ab is an addition.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.75cd = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.42ab.$

The section on the sugarcane and its products, to which other kinds of sugar and honey are added, is also expanded (6.76–93).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.76-77ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.42cd-43ab.$

An ardhaśloka on the properties of sugarcane juice is added (6.77cd).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.78-84ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.43cd-50ab.$

An ardhaśloka on sugar prepared from other plants is added (6.84cd).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.85-88ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.50cd-53.$

A verse explaining why heated honey should never be used is added (6.88cd-89ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.89cd-90ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.54.$

Some verses on the actions of honey are added (6.90cd-92). 60

The last verse of this section mentions the four kinds of honey: bhrāmara, pauṣpika, kṣaudra and mākṣika; their good qualities increase in the mentioned order; ⁶¹ when old, only kṣaudra and mākṣika honey should be used (6.93).

The next section is on oils (6.94-106ab) and animal fats (6.106cd-109ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.94-95 = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.55-56.$

A verse on the general actions of oils is added (6.96).

A.s.S \bar{u} .6.97–98 = A.h.S \bar{u} .5.57–58 (the oils of eranda and raktairanda).

A.s.S \bar{u} .6.99ab = A.h.S \bar{u} .5.61ab (the oils of um \bar{a} and kusumbha).

The Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha adds the oils of dantī, mūlaka, rakṣoghna, karañja, ariṣṭa, śigru, suvarcalā, iṅgudī, pīlu, śaṅkhinī, and nīpa, the oils made from the heartwood (sāra) of sarala, agaru, devāhva and śiṃśapā, those of tuvara, aruṣkara, karañja, nimba, akṣa, atimuktaka, akṣoḍa, nālikera, madhūka, trapusa, ervāru, kūṣmāṇḍa, śleṣmātaka, priyāla, śrīparṇī, and kiṃśuka (6.99cd–105).⁶² The verses on sarṣapa,⁶³ akṣa and nimba oil of the Hṛdaya (Sū.5.59–60) are absent from the Saṃgraha.⁶⁴

Sesamum oil is regarded as the best, kusumbha oil as the worst kind (6.106ab). ⁶⁵ A.s. $S\bar{u}$. 6.106cd -107ab = A.h. $S\bar{u}$. 5.61cd -62ab.

The best sources of vasā are the bulūka,66 hog (sūkara), pākahaṃsa, and cock (kukkuṭa);67 bad sources are the kumbhīra, buffalo (mahiṣa), kākamadgu, and kāraṇḍa (6.107cd-108);68 the best medas is that of the goat,69 the worst that of the elephant (6.109ab).70

The section that follows is about fermented, particularly alcoholic, fluids (6.109cd-134).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.109cd-115ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.62cd-68.$

The properties of jagala, medaka and bakkasa, which are related to $v\bar{a}run\bar{l}$, are added (6.115cd-116).⁷¹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.117-118ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.69-70ab.$

The properties of kauhalī and arista are added (6.118cd).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.119-124ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.70cd-75.$

Verses on surāsava, maireya, dhātakyabhisuta, drākṣāsava, mrdvīkāsava, ikṣurasāsava are added (6.124cd-126), followed by verses on the general properties of āsava (6.127ab), the five best sources for preparing an alcoholic drink, and the properties of alcoholic drinks when prepared from a mixture of source materials (6.127cd-128).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.6.129-134 = A.h.S\bar{u}.5.76-81.$

A section on various kinds of urine, animal excrements, bile, and rocanā (6.135–142) ends the chapter. 72

Some verses on the properties and medicinal uses of urines, also mentioning that cow's urine is the best kind, are added (6.137–139ab), followed by verses on the properties and medicinal actions of various kinds of animal excrements (6.139cd–141). The last substances described are bile, gallstones (rocanā) and human urine (6.142).

The concluding verse (6.143) is identical with that found in the Hrdaya (Sū.5.84).

Chapter seven (annasvarūpavi jūānīya) is much longer again than the corresponding chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.6), ⁷³

The chapter begins with a section on śūkadhānya (7.2-21).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.2-12ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.1-11ab.$

The tṛṇadhānya group (7.12cd–15) is much larger;⁷⁴ added are: jūṛṇāhva,⁷⁵ gadī, varuṇapādikā, toyaśyāmāka,⁷⁶ hastiśyāmāka,⁷⁷ śilbika (or śilbikā), śiśira, uddāla,⁷⁸ nīvāra,⁷⁹ varūka,⁸⁰ baraka,⁸¹ utkaṭa,⁸² madhūlikā,⁸³ antanirguṇḍī, veṇupaṃī, praśāntikā,⁸⁴ gavethu,⁸⁵ kānda,⁸⁶ lauhitya,⁸⁷ toyaparnī,⁸⁸ and mukundara⁸⁹ (7.12cd–15).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.16 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.12cd-13ab.$

A verse is added on the properties of uddālaka, nīvāra and madhūlikā (7.17).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.18-19ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.13cd-14.$

A.s. $S\bar{u}$. 19cd-20ab agrees with A.h. $S\bar{u}$. 6.15ab on anuyava and vaṃśajayava (= venuyava).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.20cd-21 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.15cd-16.$

The first part (7.22–29) of the section on simbidhānya differs from that of the *Hr*-daya and has no verses in common with it. The items forming part of simbidhānya, mentioned in the first verse (7.22), are: mudga, mangalya, vanamudga, makuṣṭhaka, masūraka,āḍhakī, ⁹⁰ and caṇaka. ⁹¹ Their general properties and actions are enumerated (7.23–24ab). ⁹² The best kinds and varieties for particular purposes are mentioned (7. 24cd–25). ⁹³

The properties and actions of rājamāşa, kulattha and niṣpāva are described (7.26–29). 94

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.30-31ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.21cd-22.$

A.s.Sū.7.31cd deals with kuśāmraśimbī.

The general properties and actions of the remaining \tilde{s} imbidhānyas are mentioned (7.32).

The properties and actions of sesamum (tila) form the next subject (7.33–34ab);⁹⁵ the black variety is the best, followed by the white one; the red variety is less esteemed (7.34cd).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.35 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.24.$

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.36a-c = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.25a-c.$

A.s.Sū.7.36d-37ab is an expansion of A.h.Sū.6.25d.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.37cd = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.26ab.$

The next section is about prepared foods (krtānna).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.38-43 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.26cd-32ab.$

The verses on meat broth (rasa) (7.44–46ab) are an expanded version of A.h.Sū.6. 32cd.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.46cd-47ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.33.$

An ardhaśloka on māṣa soup is added (7.47cd).

Various dishes, together with their properties, are described: khala, ⁹⁶ kāmbalika ⁹⁷ and dakalāvanika ⁹⁸ (7.48-50ab).

The heaviness (gaurava) of yūṣa, rasa, sūpa and śāka is said to increase in the mentioned order (7.50cd-51ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.51cd-52ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.34.$

Dishes added are parpața and kṣāraparpaṭa (7.52cd), rāga and ṣāḍava⁹⁹ (7.53-54). A.s.Sū.7.55-58ab = A.h.Sū.6.35-38ab.

An ardhaśloka on the actions of dhānā is added (7.58cd).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.59ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.38cd.^{100}$

Dishes added are saktupiņdī (7.59cd), avalehikā and śaṣkulīmodaka 101 (7.60).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.61 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.39cd-40ab.$

A verse on the properties and actions of saktu is added (7.62).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.63-64 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.40cd-42.$

The section on animals and their flesh (7.65–110) begins with an enumeration of the group of animals called mṛga ¹⁰² (7.65–66). ¹⁰³ This group contains more species than found in the list of the *Hṛdaya*. Added are: kālapucchaka, ¹⁰⁴ varapota, ¹⁰⁵ śvadaṃ-ṣṭra, ¹⁰⁶ rāma, ¹⁰⁷ kohakāraka, ¹⁰⁸ karāla, ¹⁰⁹ kṛtamāla, ¹¹⁰ and pṛṣata. ¹¹¹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.67-69ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.44-46ab$ (the viskira group).

The pratuda group (7.69cd–73ab) is larger ¹¹² than in the *Hrdaya* (Sū.6.46cd–47ab). ¹¹³ Added are: śatapattra, ¹¹⁴ koyaṣṭī, ¹¹⁵ khañjar ṭtaka, ¹¹⁶ durnāmāri, ¹¹⁷ kṛśāgrahā, ¹¹⁸ laḍūṣa, ¹¹⁹ vaṭahan, ¹²⁰ gokṣvela, ¹²¹ dinḍimāṇava, ¹²² jaṭī, ¹²³ dundubhi, ¹²⁴ pākāra, ¹²⁵ lohapṛṣṭha, ¹²⁶ kuliṅgaka, ¹²⁷ śārṅgākhya, ¹²⁸ cirṭṭī(ka), ¹²⁹ kaṅku, ¹³⁰ yaṣṭikā, ¹³¹ mañjar īyaka, ¹³² godhāpu ra, ¹³³ priyātmaja, ¹³⁴ kalaviṅka, ¹³⁵ parabhṭta, ¹³⁶ aṅgāracūḍaka, ¹³⁷ pārāvata, ¹³⁸ and pāṇavika. ¹³⁹

The bileśaya group (7.73cd–74) is larger than in the *Hrday*a (Sū.6.47cd). ¹⁴⁰ Added are: śveta-, śyāma-, citrapṛṣṭha- and kālakakākulīmṛga, ¹⁴¹ cillaṭa, ¹⁴² kūcīkā, ¹⁴³ śalyaka, ¹⁴⁴ śāndaka, ¹⁴⁵ vṛṣāhi, ¹⁴⁶ kadalī, ¹⁴⁷ and nakula. ¹⁴⁸

A.s. $S\bar{u}$.7.75–77ab = A.h. $S\bar{u}$.6.48–50ab (the prasaha group).

A.s.S \bar{u} .7.77cd-78ab = A.h.S \bar{u} .6.50cd-51ab (the mah \bar{a} nrga group).

The jalacārin group of birds (7.78cd-80) is larger than the corresponding apcara group of the *Hṛdaya* (Sū.6.51cd-52ab). ¹⁴⁹ Added are: mṛṇālakanṭha, ¹⁵⁰ raktaśīrṣaka, ¹⁵¹ puṇḍarīkākṣa, ¹⁵² śarārī, ¹⁵³ maṇituṇḍaka, ¹⁵⁴ kākatuṇḍa, ¹⁵⁵ ghanārāva, ¹⁵⁶ ambukukkuta. ¹⁵⁷ nadvāsva. ¹⁵⁸ and mallika. ¹⁵⁹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.81-83 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.52cd-55ab.$

An ardhaśloka on the larger groupings is added (7.84ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.84cd = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.55cd.$

An ardhaśloka on the flesh of jāngala animals is added (7.85ab). 160

A.s.Sū.7.85cd = A.h.Sū.6.56ab.

Verses added are about the flesh of the harina, an animal of a coppery (tāmra) colour, the ena, of a black colour, ¹⁶¹ and the śaśa, ¹⁶² followed by that of the birds called lāva and kapiñjala ¹⁶³ (7.86–87). The wild (vanya) pārāvata and kapota are also added (7.88ab). ¹⁶⁴

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.88cd-89 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.57-58ab.$

An ardhaśloka on the tittiri is added (7.90ab). 165

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.90cd-92ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.58cd-60ab.$

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.92cd-93ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.61-62ab.$ ¹⁶⁶

A.s.Sū.7.93cd replaces A.h.Sū.6.62cd.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.94ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.63ab.$

An ardhaśloka on the flesh of the godhā 167 and mūşika is added (7.95ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.95cd-97 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.65, 60cd, 66.$

An ardhaśloka on the hamsa is added (7.98ab). 168

A.s.Sū.7.98cd-100 replaces A.h.Sū.6.67ab. These verses deal with the properties of fish, in particular the rohita, which is the best, and the cilicima, which is the worst kind: a half-verse on the kulīra is added.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.101-102ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.63cd-64.$

A.s.Sū.7.102cd-103 takes the place of A.h.Sū.6.68.

A.s.Sū.7.104–106a takes the place of A.h.Sū.6.67cd. These verses enumerate those animals which are the best among the members of their group: ena, kuranga, harina and śaśa (among the mrgas), lāva, kapiñjala, tittiri and krakara (among the viskiras), godhā and śvāvidh (among the bileśayas), grdhra and lion (among the prasahas), śārikā (among the pratudas), nyanku (among the mahāmrgas), hamsa (among the jalacārins), rohita, kacchapa and vartmī (among the aquatic animals); ¹⁶⁹ the very best among their respective groups are the lāva, ¹⁷⁰ ena, ¹⁷¹ godhā, ¹⁷² and lion.

A.s.Sū.7.106b-d enumerates the animals not suitable for consumption: cow, frog, rsya and kāṇakapota.

A.s.Sū.7.107 is concerned with the merits, respectively demerits, of eggs, the flesh of young, and that of old animals.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.108-110 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.69-71.$

The next section is that on vegetables (sāka) (7.111–165).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.111-121 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.72-82.$

Some verses are added on vegetables which resemble in their properties and actions those described in the preceding verses (7.118–121). The plants mentioned (7. 122–124ab) are: śyāmā, ¹⁷³ śālmali, ¹⁷⁴ kāśmarya, bhañjī, ¹⁷⁵ karņaka, ¹⁷⁶ yūthikā, ¹⁷⁷ vṛkṣādinī, ¹⁷⁸ kṣīravṛkṣa, ¹⁷⁹ bimbī, ¹⁸⁰ tanika, ¹⁸¹ vṛkṣaka, ¹⁸² lodhra, ¹⁸³ śaṇa, ¹⁸⁴ kacchudāra, ¹⁸⁵ śelu, ¹⁸⁶ vṛṣamuṣṭikā, ¹⁸⁷ bhallātaka, ¹⁸⁸ kovidāra, ¹⁸⁹ kamala, ¹⁹⁰ utpala, ¹⁹¹ and kiṃśuka. ¹⁹² A verse on the properties and actions of bhañjī and abhīruja karīra ¹⁹³ is added too (7.124cd–125ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.125cd-129ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.83-86.$

485

ndī, ¹⁹⁵ parvanī ¹⁹⁶ and parvapuspikā ¹⁹⁷ are described as eliminating vāta and pitta. A.s.Sū.7.130cd-134 = A.h.Sū.6.87-91 ab.

A.s.S $\bar{u}.7.135$ ab differs from A.h.S $\bar{u}.6.91$ cd in adding śṛṅgāṭaka and kaśeruka, while omitting kumuda– and utpalakandaka. 198

A.s.Sū.7.135cd–136ab differs from A.h.Sū.6.92 in omitting šṛṅgāṭaka and kaśeruka and adding kadamba. 199

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.136cd-137ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.93.$

A.s.Sū.7.137cd-138 takes the place of A.h.Sū.6.94ab; the jīvanta, jhuñjhu and e-dagaja of the *Hṛdaya* are absent; extra items are yātukā, ²⁰⁰ sālakalyāṇī, ²⁰¹ śrīparṇī, ²⁰² pīluparṇikā, ²⁰³ kumārī, ²⁰⁴ jīva, ²⁰⁵ loṇīkā, ²⁰⁶ kuṣmāṇ•a, ²⁰⁷ nīlinī, ²⁰⁸ svarcā, ²⁰⁹ vṛka-dhūmaka, ²¹⁰ and laksmanā. ²¹¹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.139ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.94cd.^{212}$

A.s.Sū.7.139cd, an addition, mentions jīvantika, 213 cuñcuparņī, 214 prapunnāṭa, 215 and kuberaka. 216

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.140-143 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.95-98.$

A.h.Sū.6.99 on śatāvarī sprouts (aṅkura) and vaṃśakarīra is absent; its place is taken by A.s.Sū.7.144–146, where the following vegetables are mentioned: ūrupūkā, ²¹⁷ lāṅgalī, ²¹⁸ tila, ²¹⁹ vetasa, ²²⁰ pañcāṅgula, ²²¹ vaṃśakarīra, ²²² bilva, ²²³ rāsnā, ²²⁴ balā, ²²⁵ vatsādanī, ²²⁶ gandīra, ²²⁷ and citraka. ²²⁸

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.147-148ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.100-101ab.$

A.s.Sū.7.148cd-149ab, on sārṣapaśāka, ²²⁹ the worst kind of vegetable, replaces A.h.Sū.6.101cd.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.149cd-151ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.102-103.$

A.s.Sū.7.151cd takes the place of A.h.Sū.6.104ab.

A.s.S \bar{u} .7.152–153 = A.h.S \bar{u} .6.104cd–106ab.

A.s.Sū.7.154 adds a number of plants to those mentioned at A.h.Sū.6.106ab; these plants form the haritaka group, ²³⁰ a term absent from the *Hrdaya*; the group consists of: dhānya, ²³¹ tumburu, ²³² śaileya, ²³³ yavānī, ²³⁴ śṛṅgiveraka (or śṛṅgiverakā), ²³⁵ paṛṇāsa, ²³⁶ gṛñiana, ²³⁷ ajājī, ²³⁸ jīraka, ²³⁹ and gajapippalī. ²⁴⁰

A.s.Sū.7.155-157 replaces A.h.Sū.6.106cd-107; these verses, on the properties and actions of the haritaka group of vegetables, add some more plants belonging to it: kharāhvā,²⁴¹ kālamālikā,²⁴² dīpyaka,²⁴³ ksavaka,²⁴⁴ dvīpi,²⁴⁵ and bastagandhā.²⁴⁶

A.s. $S\bar{u}$.7.158a-c = A.h. $S\bar{u}$.6.108a-c; 7.158d differs from A.h. $S\bar{u}$.6.108d and mentions dhānakā 247

A.s.Sū.7.159, an addition, is about kharāhvā and citraka.

A.s.Sū.7.160–161ab, on garlic (laśuna), takes the place of A.h.Sū.6.109cd–110ab, on the same subject. A.h.Sū.6.109ab, on ārdrikā, is absent from the *Samgraha*.

A.s.Sū.7.161cd, still on garlic, is identical with A.h.Sū.6.110cd.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.162 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.111.$

A.s.Sū.7.163 takes the place of A.h.Sū.6.112ab.

The verse on grījanaka of the Hrdaya ($S\bar{u}.6.112cd-113ab$) misses in the Samgraha. A.s. $S\bar{u}.7.164-165 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.113cd-115ab$.

The section on fruits (7.166–207ab) also contains a number of additions.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.166-172 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.115cd-122ab.$

Some verses (7.173–175ab) are added; they deal with nālikera, 248 moca, 249 and the fruit of rāiādana. 250

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.175cd-176ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.122cd-123ab.$

An ardhaśloka on the fruits of madhūka²⁵¹ and badara²⁵² is added (7.176cd).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.177-178 = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.123cd-125ab.$

A.h.Sū.6.125cd-126ab on the fruit of bilva is absent.

A.s.Sū.7.179-181 are added; they deal with the fruits of tinduka, ²⁵³ aśmantaka, ²⁵⁴ asīna (or āsīna), ²⁵⁵ phalinī, ²⁵⁶ bimbi, ²⁵⁷ todana, ²⁵⁸ ṭaṅka, ²⁵⁹ aśvakarṇa, ²⁶⁰ bakula, ²⁶¹ gāṅgeru, ²⁶² dhava, ²⁶³ dhanvana, ²⁶⁴ śvetapāka, ²⁶⁵ kapittha, ²⁶⁶ siñcatī, ²⁶⁷ bhavya, ²⁶⁸ jambū, ²⁶⁹ ksīrivrksa, ²⁷⁰ and puskara. ²⁷¹

A.s.Sū.7.182–183 on the fruit ofkapittha occurs instead of A.h.Sū.6.126cd–127ab. The verses of the *Hrdaya* on jambū fruit ²⁷² and the mango (āmra) ²⁷³ (Sū.6.127cd–129ab) are absent.

Verses added (7.184–190) are about the properties and actions of the fruits of siñcatikā, bhavya, jambū, kṣīrivṛkṣa, akṣakī, 274 āmra, the juice of sahakāra fruit, 275 the fruit of lavalī 276 and bilva. 277

A.s.Sū.7.191ab is related to A.h.Sū.6.129cd.

A.s.Sū.7.191cd and 192 are added; they are concerned with the fruit of kośāɪnla, ²⁷⁸ karañja, ²⁷⁹ and śamī. ²⁸⁰

A.s.Sū.7.193, on the fruit of pīlu, takes the place of A.h.Sū.6.130.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.194ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.131ab.$

A.s.Sū.7.194cd-195ab, an addition, describes the fruits of nīpa, ²⁸¹ śatākṣika, ²⁸² prācīnāgara, ²⁸³ tṛṇaśūlya, ²⁸⁴ iṅgudī, ²⁸⁵ and vikaṅkata. ²⁸⁶

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.7.195cd-207ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.6.131cd-143ab.$

The section on medicinal substances (auṣadhavarga) of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.6.143cd–171) is absent from the *Saṃgraha*. Instead, a mātrādiprakaraṇa is found (7.207cd–261), which deals with a variety of subjects.

This section is introduced by a series of verses (7.207cd-210).

First, the dependence of the effects of medicinal substances on the dosage employed ²⁸⁷ and the combination with other substances ²⁸⁸ is described by means of examples (7.211–217); next, the changes of qualities, resulting from the way of preparation, are discussed ²⁸⁹ (7.218–228).

A number of verses are devoted to the subject of dehasātmya, i.e., substances suitable to particular peoples and unwholesome to others (7.229–233). ²⁹⁰ Peoples mentioned are the maruvāsins, Prācyas, Saindhavas, Aśmakas, those living in Malaya and Konkana, the Udīcyas, Avantis, Bālhīkas, Bālhavas, Cīnas, Śūlikas, Yavanas, and Śakas.

Examples of satmya of various types are given (7.234–237).

Numerous verses are concerned with the varying effects of substances, pharmaceutical preparations and remedial measures in general, dependent on the disease of the patient, the dosa(s) involved, the season in which the disease occurs, etc. (7.238–259).

The concluding verses declare that an intelligent physician should take into con-

sideration all these manifold (vicitra) factors (dharma), subtle (sūkṣma) and difficult to evaluate (durlabhahetuka), not taught by science, and to be assessed by himself.²⁹¹

Chapter eight (annarakṣāvidhi) deals with the protection of the king from poison, one of the functions of the royal physician (prāṇācārya); it corresponds to the first part of chapter seven of the *Hrdaya*, but is much more elaborate.

The first part of this chapter (8.1–20) is in prose.

The chapter begins with stressing the importance of protecting wealthy people, and in particular a king, from being poisoned, and the place of the court physician as the one chiefly entrusted with this task (8.2–3).²⁹² Kings are said to be vulnerable to diseases on account of their way of living (8.3). Precautions concerning the royal meal (8.4–5) and some general characteristics of poisoned food (8.6)²⁹³ are described, followed by the signs of poisoning exhibited by a series of dietary items (8.7–8).²⁹⁴

The next subjects are: characteristics enabling one to recognize a poisoner (visada) (8.9); ²⁹⁵ the testing of foods by burning them and examining the colour, form, smell, and other features of the flames and the fire (8.10); ²⁹⁶ the treatment of disorders caused by inhaling the smoke of burned poisoned substances (8.11); the testing of foods by feeding them to various animals, which react to poison in a specific way (8.12); ²⁹⁷ the treatment of disorders caused by inhaling the vapours (baspa) of burning poisoned foods (8.13)²⁹⁸ and by touching poisoned substances (8.13);²⁹⁹ the symptoms occurring when poisoned food is being swallowed down; their treatment; 300 the symptoms occurring when poisoned food has reached the āmāśava (8.14);301 their treatment (8.15); 302 the symptoms indicating that the poison has reached the pakvāśaya; 303 their treatment (8.16); the symptoms caused by a poisoned collyrium, ³⁰⁴ errhine (nasya), or dhūma; 305 the treatment of these conditions (8.17); 306 the symptoms caused by a pojsoned substance used for abhyanga and the treatment of these symptoms; 307 the same symptoms are caused by poisoned substances used for udvartana, gharsana, ³⁰⁸ pariseka³⁰⁹ and anulepana, ³¹⁰ by poisoned ornaments (bhūsana), ³¹¹ vehicles (yāna), ³¹² couches (śayyā), 313 bedding (āstaraṇa), clothing (vastra), 314 armour (kavaca), 315 wooden sandals (pādukā), 316 shoes (upānah), 317 and foot-stools (pādapītha); 318 their treatment should be carried out on the same lines (8.17); specific treatment of the disorders caused by poisoned ornaments (ābharana), 319 foot-stools, parasols (chattra), chowries (cāmara), and fans (vya jana) (8.18); the symptoms caused by poisoned oils for inunction of the head (siro'bhyanga); their treatment; 320 the same measures are applicable in disorders caused by poisoned water for washing the head, poisoned combs (kankata), ³²¹ garlands (sraj), ³²² and headcoverings (usnīṣa) ³²³ (8.19); the symptoms caused by poisoned oils for filling the auditory duct (karnapūrana)³²⁴ and by poisoned cosmetics (mukhālepa); 325 their treatment (8.20).

Some verses are devoted to various measures to be taken by the physician in order to protect the king and his food (8.21–25ab).

The next section, in verse, is concerned with the storage room for medicines (bhe-sajāgāra)³²⁶ and its location (8.25cd-26ab); ³²⁷ the royal kitchen (mahānasa), its construction and location, the personnel to be employed, ³²⁸ and the qualities required for

these persons ³²⁹ (8.26cd-31); ³³⁰ the qualities required in the royal physician, who also accompanies the army on march (8.32-33); ³³¹ the measures to be taken by the physician for protection of the army from being poisoned in all sorts of ways (8.34-40); ³³² the characteristics of poisoned water and soil, and the counter-measures to be taken (8.41-48ab); ³³³ the same concerning poisoned air (8.48cd-53ab); ³³⁴ the poison-girl (8.53cd-56); ³³⁵ precautions the king should take concerning his food (8.57).

A verse (8.58) introduces a long prose passage on the preparation of an antidote (agada), a collyrium (añjana) in this case, called sarvārthasiddha, to be employed by kings, high officials (mahāmātra),³³⁶ brāhmaṇas studying the Vedas and other sciences, etc. This drug, to be prepared very carefully,³³⁷ accompanied by rituals, derives from the king of Videha; earlier, it was given by the Aśvins to Indra in order to enable him to kill Vṛtra. ³³⁸ It should be administered while muttering a dhāriṇī addressed to the Tathāgata, Arhant Samyaksambuddha. Many divinities and sages are to receive homage during one of the stages of the process of preparation: Āryāvalokiteśvara, Āryatārā, Brahmā, Dakṣa, the Aśvins, Rudra, Indra, Āditya, Soma, Varuṇa, Vaiśvāṇara, ³³⁹ Vāyu, Viṣṇu, Janaka, Bharadvāja, Dhanvantari, Suśruta, Bhavya, ³⁴⁰ Sukanyā, ³⁴¹ Skanda, Cyavana, Vainateya, ³⁴² and others (8.59–61).

The remaining part of the chapter, in verse, begins with preparations, devised by Bṛhaspati, which, when sprinkled on various objects, make poisons innocuous; these preparations are meant for royal use (8.62–66). It proceeds with another preparation, to be mounted in gold, which, worn as a jewel, neutralizes poisons (8.67–69ab), and one more of the same type, called saumyākhyāgada (8.69cd–71ab). The plants called mūṣikā and ajaruhā, tied to the wrist (hastabaddha), perform the same function (8.71cd). 343

Another drug, when rubbed on musical instruments and banners, has the same effect again (8.72–73).

A series of verses contain various recipes of antidotes for use by the king (8.74–96).³⁴⁴ Substances of animal origin, ³⁴⁵ as well as metals, form conspicuous ingredients of these and the preceding compound drugs. An authority quoted is Gautama (8.86). Hṛdayāvaraṇa by means of ajeya- and amṛtaghṛta is also mentioned (8.89). ³⁴⁶

The last part of the chapter describes how the physician should behave towards the king in general (8.97–108ab), and with regard to a number of specific duties, in particular ritual activities for protection of the king³⁴⁷ (8.108cd–113).

The chapter ends with two concluding verses (8.114-115).³⁴⁸

Chapter nine (viruddhānnavijāānīya), about antagonistic (viruddha) foods, which should not be eaten together, and a variety of other subjects, corresponds to the second and third parts of chapter seven of the *Hrdaya*.

The chapter begins with foods to be avoided in combination with the flesh of domestic animals, those living in marshy regions, and aquatic animals; ³⁴⁹ the combination of fish and milk is particularly unwholesome, and among fish the one called cilicima; ³⁵⁰ the cilicima is described (9.2). ³⁵¹ Other articles of diet not going together with milk are enumerated (9.3). ³⁵² A long series of antagonistic combinations of foods, drinks and anupānas follow (9.3–6). ³⁵³ Antagonistic drugs are not dealt with, on ac-

1 Sūtrasthāna 489

count of the complexity of the subject and the difficulties involved (9.6).

After this section in prose, verses follow.

First, some stanzas describe antagonism (virodha) in general (9.7–8), examples of this interaction, its bad effects, and the general lines of treatment to be adopted (9.9–12ab).³⁵⁴

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.9.12cd-13 = A.h.S\bar{u}.7.46cd-47.$

Some additional verses state that the rules about antagonism do not apply in diseased conditions, where antagonistic or normally unwholesome articles may prove to be of curative value (9.14–15).

The procedure to be adopted in giving up unhealthy dietary habits is discussed; one quarter of the unwholesome item should be replaced by the same quantity of something wholesome with intervals of one, two or three days, until the process is completed (9. 16–17). 355

The three upastambha(na)s (mainstays of the body) are dealt with in prose; these consist of food, sleep and enjoyment (abrahmacarya) (9.18).³⁵⁶

The next section, in verse, is concerned with sleep.

Three verses describe the physiology of sleep, which is a state chiefly connected with tamas (9.19-21).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.9.22-23 = A.h.S\bar{u}.7.53cd-55.$

An additional verse (9.24) compares the beneficial effects of sleep with those of tapas.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.9.25-29 = A.h.S\bar{u}.7.55cd-60.$

The disorders arising from unhealthy sleeping habits (ahitanidrā) are described (9.30-32ab), 357 followed by the way in which the need to sleep long hours (atinidratā) arises (9.32cd-33). The treatment of this condition is discussed (9.34-35). The verses on the causes $(7.36)^{359}$ and symptoms of insomnia (nidrānāśa) $(9.37-39)^{360}$ give more details than those of the Hrdaya.

An ardhaśloka on the curability of insomnia is added (9.40ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.9.40cd-41 = A.h.S\bar{u}.7.65-66ab.$

The treatment of insomnia is more elaborate (9.42-46) than in the *Hṛdaya*, though part of the verses are identical. ³⁶¹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.9.47ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.7.68cd.$

An additional ardhaśloka saysthat the measures provoking sleep in someone sleepless should be avoided by those sleeping too much (9.47cd).

The last verse on sleep (9.48) enumerates healthy and unhealthy types of sleep. ³⁶²
The section that follows gives rules concerning sexual behaviour (grāmyadharma) (9.45–59)³⁶³ in prose and verse; this section corresponds to A.h.Sū.7.69–76. ³⁶⁴

The passage in prose (9.45) lists women to be avoided, improper times for intercourse, and some rules for the male partner. The verses formulate rules to be observed by the male preceding intercourse (9.46–47), the frequency of cohabitation during the various seasons (9.48ab), the proper behaviour of the male after intercourse (9.48cd–49), the beneficial results of these practices when duly observed, and the bad effects of neglecting them (9.50–51). The disorders resulting from too much sex are enumerated (9.52–53); the age limits (sixteen and seventy years) of sexual activity are mentioned

(9.54). The good results of complying with the rules and the bad ones of not heeding them end this section (9.55–59).

The next section discusses the reasons why a series of factors, usually leading to disease, may remain harmless; the appearance of disorders in other cases is attributed to the influence of karman (9.60–68).³⁶⁵

The verses that follow elaborate on this subject. They describe the effects of corrupted wind, water, place and time, ³⁶⁶ and the remedial measures to be taken when the karman of those suffering is not fixed (aniyata) (9.69–76).

The importance of keeping to the rules regarding the seasonal regimen is shortly stressed (9.77-78).

A section devoted to timely (kālamṛṭyu) and untimely death (akālamṛṭyu) follows (9.79–85). ³⁶⁷ The life span is said to depend on fate (daiva) and one's actions in the present life (puruṣakāra) (9.79), each of which is of three grades (śreṣṭha, madhya, avara); kāla- and akālamṛṭyu are determined by the type of karman and puruṣakāra (9. 80–85). The vedavādinah distinguish 101 kinds of death: one of these is kālamṛṭyu, the remaining hundred are āgantu (9.86). ³⁶⁸ The killing of foes (bhrātṛvya) by means of the śyena sacrifice (yāga) ³⁶⁹ and other rituals, and the suicide of Dīrghaśravasa ³⁷⁰ are referred to (9.87). One should always protect one's life, for example by means of the mitravindā iṣṭi ³⁷¹ (9.88). The four kinds of death of Buddhist doctrine are referred to (9.89ab). Untimely death is declared to be a phenomenon occurring under all sets of circumstances, and recognized as such by all the āgamas; death, when taking place even in the presence of accomplished physicians, is to be regarded as akālamṛṭyu (9. 89cd–101). The unavoidability of death is emphasized and illustrated (9.102–106).

The chapter ends with verses recommending a healthy and virtuous way of life (9.107-115).

Chapter ten (annapānavidhi) is devoted to generalities about the intake of food. ³⁷² A large part is in prose (10.1–13), a smaller part in verse (10.14–29).

The contents consist of: foods and drinks enjoyed in keeping with the rules constitute the support (ayatana) of life (ayus); they form the fuel of the internal fire, which maintains the body (10.2); seven factors relating to the intake of food should be taken into consideration: svabhāva (inherent nature), 373 samyoga (combination), samskāra (preparation), mātrā (quantity), deśa (place), kāla (time), and upayoga (consumption); the svabhava of an article of diet may change under the influence of samyoga, etc. (10. 3); ³⁷⁴ samyoga, ³⁷⁵ samskāra, ³⁷⁶ mātrā, ³⁷⁷ deśa ³⁷⁸ and upayoga ³⁷⁹ are explained (10. 4); time bears on the season and (the stage of) the disease; its distinctive signs are digestion or absence of digestion (10.5); 380 many rules relating to the taking of a meal are formulated (10.6); ³⁸¹ the actions of foodstuffs which are snigdha, laghu and usna are described, ³⁸² followed by the effects of eating too slowly or too quickly ³⁸³ (10.7); the concepts of sātmya and asātmya form the next subject; 384 a number of different definitions of satmya are recorded; three grades of satmya are distinguished; pravara, madhya and avara; ³⁸⁵ hita (healthy) and ahita (unhealthy) foods are defined (10.8); four improper types of enjoying a meal should be avoided: samasana, adhyasana, amātrāsana and visamāsana; these terms are defined; 386 the proper materials for the vessels in 1 Sūtrasthāna 491

which particular dishes should be prepared are discussed (10.9), ³⁸⁷ and, subsequently, the proper places of the various items composing a meal, as well as the order in which dishes with particular main tastes should be consumed (10.10); ³⁸⁸ the kinds of anupāna to be selected as suitable in combination with particular dishes are enumerated; ³⁸⁹ an anupāna should always possess properties opposed to those of the dish ³⁹⁰ (10.11); the beneficial effects of an anupāna are dealt with; patients in whom it has an adverse effect are enumerated; the proper behaviour after taking an anupāna is described (10.12), ³⁹¹ followed by prescriptions regarding the behaviour after finishing a meal (10.13); ³⁹² articles of diet not to be enjoyed habitually are listed (10.14–17), ³⁹³ as well as those suitable to habitual use (10.18–20); ³⁹⁴ two verses praise the effects of a healthy diet (10.21–22).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.10.23 = A.h.S\bar{u}.8.46cd-47ab.$

Persons who should keep to the rule of the preceding verse are mentioned (10.24). A series of verses describe the effects of foods which are dry (rūkṣa), or too oleaginous (atisnigdha), hot, cold, liquid (drava), sweet, salt, sharp (tīkṣṇa), and sour (10.25–28).

The concluding verse praises the results of the observance of the rules (10.29).

Chapter eleven (mātrāśitīya) corresponds to part of the chapter of the same title (Sū.8) of the *Hṛdaya*.

The chapter begins with declaring that one should eat in measure (mātrāśin). The proper measure (mātrā) is defined by means of its effects (11.2). ³⁹⁵ The proper amounts of heavy and light foods are specified, together with the reasons for these prescriptions; ³⁹⁶ the effects of eating too little and too much are described; ³⁹⁷ the pathogenesis of alasaka and viṣūcikā is the next subject, because these diseases arise from overeating ³⁹⁸ (11.3).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.11.4-5 = A.h.S\bar{u}.8.6cd-8ab.$

The symptoms of three dosic types of the disorder caused by overeating are described, 399 those of alasaka, 400 and those of an incurable type of alasaka 401 (11.6). The incurable type of āmadoşa called āmaviṣa is the next subject (11.7), 402 followed by additional causes of corruption of āma (11.8). 403

The treatment of curable cases of āma(doṣa) is discussed (11.9), ⁴⁰⁴ followed by a series of recipes in verseagainst āmadoṣa in general, viṣūcī and alasaka (11.10–22). ⁴⁰⁵ Indications and contra-indications regarding the treatment with drugs are mentioned (11.23). ⁴⁰⁶ All the disorders arising from āmadoṣa are suitable to a treatment consisting of apatarpaṇa measures (11.24). ⁴⁰⁷ Three types of apatarpaṇa are distinguished: laṅghana, laṅghanapācana and avasecana, to be applied when the doṣas are present in a slight, moderate or large amount; ⁴⁰⁸ their effects are described by means of similes (11.25).

All disorders arising from samtarpana are alleviated by apatarpana, and the other way round. 409 This principle of treatment by remedial measures opposed to the aetiological factors (nidānaviparīta) is to be observed in other diseases too, but when these diseases nevertheless persist, one should shift to a type of therapy that is opposed to the disease itself (vyādhiviparīta) or tadarthakārin; the after-treatment is described (11. 26). 410

The remaining part of the chapter, in verse, deals with: signs of a fatal outcome (11. 27); recipes against viṣūcī (11.28-29); ⁴¹¹ the three types of ajīrṇa and their symptoms (11.30-33). ⁴¹²

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.11.34-35 = A.h.S\bar{u}.8.27-28.$

A fourth type of ajīrṇa, arising from a remnant of the rasa (rasaśeṣa), is described, together with its treatment (11.36–37). 413 Rules preventing the occurrence of ajīrṇa are formulated (11.38–44). The signs indicating that ajīrṇa has disappeared are enumerated (11.45). 414

Diseases arise in general from praj \bar{n} āpar \bar{a} dha; vi \bar{s} ūcik \bar{a} arises particularly in those keen on eating ($\dot{1}$ 1.46).

Observance of the rules concerning food is praised (11.47).

Chapter twelve (dvividhauṣadhavijñānīya), which has no counterpart in the *Hṛdaya*, is concerned with classifications of remedial measures and with the properties and actions of individual drugs.

Remedial measures (auṣadha) are of two main categories: ūrjaskara (vitalizing) and rogaghna (counteracting diseases); ⁴¹⁵ ūrjaskara is of two types: rasāyana and vājūkaraṇa, ⁴¹⁶ as is rogaghna: rogapraśamana (alleviating a disease) and apunarbhavakara ⁴¹⁷ (eradicating, thus preventing recurrence); the rogaghna type is dravya (material) or adravya (immaterial); ⁴¹⁸ a material auṣadha is bhauma (inorganic), audbhida (of plant origin) or jarīgama (of animal origin); ⁴¹⁹ the inorganic substances, which will be discussed later, consist for the larger part of the series beginning with gold and ending with salts; ⁴²⁰ plants are of four kinds: vanaspati, vānaspatya, vīrudh and oṣadhi; ⁴²¹ the characteristics of these groups are described; ⁴²² substances of animal origin are all those deriving from animals, including honey, ghee, etc. ⁴²³ (12.2). Many items belonging to the immaterial remedial measures are listed. ⁴²⁴ These measures may be divided into three categories: daivavyapāśraya, yuktivyapāśraya and sattvāvajaya; ⁴²⁵ the items belonging to daivavyapāśraya ⁴²⁶ and yuktivyapāśraya and sattvāvajaya; ⁴²⁵ the items belonging to daivavyapāśraya ⁴²⁶ and yuktivyapāśraya and sattvāvajaya; ⁴²⁷ are enumerated; sattvāvajaya is defined. ⁴²⁸ Remedial measures can also be divided into apakarṣaṇa, ⁴²⁹ prakṛṭivighāta, ⁴³⁰ and nidānatyāga ⁴³¹ (12.3).

These three measures are of an external (bāhya) or internal (ābhyantara) kind. Extemal apakarṣaṇa (removal) is carried out, in a number of diseases, by means of sharp instruments, blunt instruments, or the hands, internal apakarṣaṇa by means of emesis, purgation, etc. 432 Prakṛṭivighāta is the same as saṃśamana; 433 the items belonging to the external kind are enumerated; 434 the internal kind is defined. 435 Nidānatyāga (avoidance of aetiological factors) consists of the abstinence from particular foods and activities, dependent on the doṣa involved. Surgical treatment may be followed by treatment with drugs, but a disease that is curable by surgical intervention ought not to be treated with drugs (12.4).

Remedial measures can also be divided into hetuviparīta (counteracting the aetiological factors), ⁴³⁶ vyādhiviparīta (counteracting the disease), ⁴³⁷ and ubhayārthakārin (having both kinds of effect). ⁴³⁸ Hetuviparīta measures are illustrated by means of examples: light foods in diseases caused by heavy foods, etc. Vyādhiviparīta treatment consists of two main types, laṅghana and bṛṃhaṇa; further elements are: pañcakarman,

together with medicinal smoking (dhūma), fumigation (dhūpa), the application of collyria, etc., as well as vimlāpana, upanāhana, pāṭana, etc. (12.5). Examples are given of vyādhiviparīta and ubhayārthakārin types of therapy (12.6).

Measures which are not remedial (anauşadha) are of two kinds: bādhana, i.e., immediately fatal, and anubādhana, i.e., having harmful effects after an interval of time (12.7). 439

After this section in prose, verses follow (12.8-92).

The properties and actions of numerous medicinal substances are described: gold, 440 silver, 441 copper, 442 kāmsya, 443 pittala, 444 tin, 445 lead, 446 kṛṣṇaloha, 447 tīkṣṇaloha⁴⁴⁸ (12.8-14); precious and semi-precious stones (12.15-16); ⁴⁴⁹ glass (kāca) (12.17);⁴⁵⁰ a series of, mainly inorganic, substances: śankha (shells), udadhimala, tutthaka, gairika, manohvā, haritāla, añjana in general and its varieties: sroto'ñ jana, sauvīrāñjana and rasāñjana, followed by śilājatu, vamśarocanā and tugākṣīrī (12. 18-25); salts in general, 451 and types of salt: saindhava, 452 sauvarcala, 453 vida, 454 sāmudra, 455 audbhida, 456 kṛṣṇalavaṇa, 457 romaka and pāṃsūttha 458 (12.26-32ab), 459 yavaśūkaja⁴⁶⁰ and svarjikā⁴⁶¹ (12.32cd-33); ksāra in general (12.34);⁴⁶² a group of plants: harītakī (12.35-39ab), 463 āmalaka (12.39cd-40) 464 and akşa (12.41-42ab), 465 forming together triphalā (12.42c-f); 466 more groups of substances: caturjāta, trijātaka and pañcakola (12.43-49),467 mahāpañcamūla, hrasvapañcamūla, madhyamapañcamūla, jīvanākhyapañcamūla, trnapañcamūla, 468 vallīpañcamūla, and kantakākhyapañcamūla (12.50-55); 469 a group of spices (annagandhahara), consisting of kāravī, kuñcikā, a jājī, kavarī, dhānya, and tumburu (12.56); 470 a series of additional spices: bāspikā, 471 rājikā, 472 and dīpyaka 473 (12.57); sarsapa (12.58ab); 474 hingu and its best variety, which grows in Boskana (12.59); 475 plants that can be used instead of hingu, but of less quality: śatāhvā, ⁴⁷⁶ kustha, ⁴⁷⁷ tagara, ⁴⁷⁸ suradāru, ⁴⁷⁹ and hareņu ⁴⁸⁰ (12.60); elā, elavālu, the bark of sarala, vyāglu anakha, coraka (12.61); sairyaka (12.62ab); goksuraka (12.62cd); the two kinds of visā (12.63ab); musta (12.63cd); amrtā (12.64); bhūnimba and parpaṭa⁴⁸¹ (12.65ab); nimba (12.65cd); mahānimba (12.66ab); guggulu (12.66cd-68); śankhapuspī (12.69); candana (12.70); uśīra and vālaka (12.71); madhuka (12.72); the two kinds of nisā (12.73); prapaundarīka (12.74); the three kinds of balā (12.75ab); nāgabalā (12.75cd); tāmbūla (12.76ab); pūga (12.76cd);⁴⁸² jātipattrī, katuphala, kankolaka, and lavangaka (12.77);⁴⁸³ karpūra (12.78ab); 484 latākastūrikā (12.78cd); 485 padma (12.79ab); bakula, 486 punnāga, kumuda, utpala, and pātala⁴⁸⁷ (12.79cd); campaka, 488 koranda, 489 and kimšuka⁴⁹⁰ (12.80ab); mālatī and mallikā (12.80cd);⁴⁹¹ nāga⁴⁹² and sinduvāra ⁴⁹³ (12.81ab); ketaka and śirīsa (12.81cd); agastya (12.82);⁴⁹⁴ bandhūka and yūthikā⁴⁹⁵ (12.83ab); kunkuma (12.83cd); 496 avalgu 497 and edagaja 498 (12.83ef).

The last part of the chapter is about the unhealthy, respectively healthy effects of a sedentary life (āsyā),⁴⁹⁹ travelling (adhvan),⁵⁰⁰ walking (caṅkramaṇa)⁵⁰¹ (12.84–85ab), the use of footwear (pādatra)⁵⁰² and a parasol (chattra)⁵⁰³ (12.85cd–86ab), fæquenting windy places (pravāta) and avoiding these (12.86cd–87ab);⁵⁰⁴ the effects of an easterly, westerly, southerly and northerly wind (12.87cd–90),⁵⁰⁵ followed by those of sunshine (ātapa) and shadow, ⁵⁰⁶ darkness and moonlight (jyotsnā) (12.91).

The chapter ends with a verse stating that there is no substance devoid of medicinal

properties and that a physician can come to know them from those living in the woods (12.92).

Chapter thirteen (agryasamgrahanīya) gives, in three prose passages (13.2–4), long lists of items regarded as the most prominent (śrestha) of the group to which they belong. These items consist of drugs of vegetable, animal and inorganic origin, activities, states of mind, etc. The actions and effects, characteristic of each group, are mentioned.

The lists, taken together, resemble the one list found in the *Carakasaṃhitā* (Sū.25. 40). The majority of the items of Caraka recur verbally in the *Saṃgraha*, but their order differs considerably.

Absent from the Saingraha are: vamana, virecana, gavedhukānna, adhyaśana, āyāsa, jala, anirveda, vaidyasamūha, yoga, vijñāna, sainpratipatti, kālajñāna, avyavasāya, and asadgrahana.

Extra items, absent from Caraka's list, are: tinduka, ⁵⁰⁷ upavāsa, vṛṣa, kaṇṭakārikā, lākṣā, ⁵⁰⁸ nāgabalābhyāsa, ⁵⁰⁹ aruṣkara, kuṭaja, sālaparṇī, raktāvaseka, ⁵¹⁰ eraṇḍatailābhyāsa, ⁵¹¹ laśuna, uṣṭrīkṣīra, ayorajas, guggulu (mentioned twice) (13.2), udumbara, ⁵¹² sudarśanānna, sūnādarśana ⁵¹³ (13.3), āśvāsa, asaumanasya, ⁵¹⁴ siddhi, ātmavaṭṭā, śāsṭraṣaḥiṭaṭarka, and sadvaidyadvesa ⁵¹⁵ (13.4).

Various other slight differences between the two texts can also be noticed.

At the end of 13.4 two lists are found which enumerate the items which are the most prominent regardless of their being used singly or in combination (samudāya), and those which are the best in combinations only.

The total number of items in this chapter is said to be 155 in the concluding verse (13.5).

Chapter fourteen (śodhanādigaṇasaṇgraha), which has no parallel in the *Hṛdaya*, enumerates plants and other medicinal substances which are useful in purificatory (śodhana) and other therapeutic measures; the parts of the plants or the plant products to be employed are also mentioned.

The groups dealt with are: the substances to be used in emetics (vamanopayogin) ⁵¹⁶ (14.2), purgatives (virecanopayogin) ⁵¹⁷ (14.3), both emetics and purgatives (ubhayātmaka), ⁵¹⁸ clysters (nirūhopayogin) ⁵¹⁹ (14.4), and preparations for evacuation of the head (śirovirecanopayogin) (14.5); ⁵²⁰ substances employed for smoking in the healthy (prāyogikadhūmopayogin), ⁵²¹ oleaginous smokes (snaihikadhūmopayogin), and medicinal smokes with a sharp action (tīkṣṇadhūmopayogin) (14.6); ⁵²² substances appeasing (śamana) vāta, ⁵²³ pitta⁵²⁴ and kapha⁵²⁵ (14.7).

The verse concluding this chapter in prose says that a physician, after assessing doşa(s) and dūşya(s) involved, can cure all diseases by help of the mentioned groups of drugs (14.8).

Chapter fifteen (mahākaṣāyasaṃgraha), which has no counterpart in the *Hṛdaya*, enumerates forty-five groups of ten plants from which a kaṣāya can be prepared with a particular action. The contents of this chapter derive for a very large part from Ca.Sū.

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The introduction, in prose (15.2), differs from that found in the *Carakasannhitā* (Sū. 4.2–8). The *Saṃgraha* states that the chapter is meant for physicians with an inactive mind (mandabuddhi); those who are intelligent (buddhimant) may use it as providing examples and devise many more kasāyas themselves. ⁵²⁶

The number of kaṣāyas differs in both treatises. The Carakasaṃhitā, (Sū.4.3 and 8) says that five hundred kaṣāyas will be described. The classification of the groups of ten in ten larger groups of mahākaṣāyas with a total number of fifty is absent from the Saṃgraha. The names of the plants are either identical with those found in the Carakasaṃhitā or replaced by synonyms.

The prose of the Carakasaṃhitā has been rendered into verse in the Saṃgraha. The groups of ten drugs described are: jīvanīya, ⁵²⁷ bṛṃhaṇīya, lekhanīya, bhedanīya, saṇḍhāna, dīpanīya (15.3–8), ⁵²⁸ balya, varṇya, kaṇṭhajanana, hṛdya (15.9–12), ⁵²⁹ tṛptighna, arśoghna, kuṣṭhaghna, kaṇḍnghna, krimighna, viṣaghna (15.13–18), ⁵³⁰ stanyajanana, stanyaśuddhikara, śukrajanana, śukraśuddhikara (15.19–22), ⁵³¹ sne-hopaga, svedopaga (15.23–24), ⁵³² vaminigrahaṇa, tṛḍghna, hidhmānighna (15.25–27), ⁵³³ vidgrahaṇa, vidvirajana, mūtragrahaṇa, mūtravirāgakara, mūtraviracana (15.28–32), ⁵³⁴ kāsaghna, śvāsaśamana, jvaraśamana, śramanāśana (15.33–36), ⁵³⁵ dā-aghna, śītaśamana, udardaśamana, angamardaghna, śūlaśamana (15.37–41ab), ⁵³⁶ rudhirasaṃsthāpana, vedanāsthāpana, saṇṇjñāda, garbhasthāpana, and vayaḥsthāpana (15.42–46). ⁵³⁷

The chapter ends with a concluding verse (15.47).

Chapter sixteen (vividhadravyagaṇasaṃgraha) agrees for a large part with the śodhanādiganasaṃgraha chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.15).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.16.2-15 = A.h.S\bar{u}.15.9-23.$

The vīratarādigana (16.16) differs from that found in the Hrdaya (15.24).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.16.17-24 = A.h.S\bar{u}.15.25-32.$

The vatsakādigana (16.25–26) differs from that found in the *Hrdaya* (15.33–34).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.16.27-37 = A.h.S\bar{u}.15.35-45.$

The Sangraha adds a pippalyadigana (16.38-39).538

A.s.Sū.16.40 is largely identical with A.h.Sū.15.46, but states that twenty-five groups have been mentioned. The *Hṛdaya* declares, in conformity with the additional groups of its chapter, that their number is thirty-three.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.16.41 = A.h.S\bar{u}.15.47.$

Chapter seventeen (dravyādivijñānīya) is a more elaborate version of the corresponding chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.9).

A.s.Sū.17.2 corresponds to A.h.Sū.9.1-3a.

A.s.Sū.17.3, partly corresponding to A.h.Sū.9.3b-5ab, contains additional material on the tastes; these are, with regard to their action, chedana or upaśamana; with regard to their prabhāva they are hita (salutary) or ahita (insalutary). ⁵³⁹ The lists of qualities and actions of substances with a predominance of one of the mahābhūtas (17.4-8) are longer than in the verses of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.9.5cd-l0a). ⁵⁴⁰

A.s.Sū.17.9 agrees with A.h.Sū.9.10b-d.

A.s.Sū.17.10 and 11 correspond to A.h.Sū.9.11, but add an explanation of the mentioned phenomena. A.s.Sū.17.12 refers to substances of a mixed nature.

An added passage (17.13) deals with samana as an action not restricted to substances with predominance of any particular mahābhūta; ⁵⁴¹ substances with a predominance of air are grāhin, ⁵⁴² those with a predominance of fire are dīpanapācana, those with a predominance of both air and fire are lekhana, those with a predominance of earth and water are brmhana.

The kaṭu, amla and lavaṇa tastes possess a heating (uṣṇa), the tikta, kaṣāya and madhura tastes a cooling (śīta) potency (vīrya), which increases in the mentioned order (17.14). 543 The tastes which are rūkṣa, snigdha, guru and laghu are listed (17.15–16). 544 A divergent opinion, declaring that the saltish taste has no pronounced character (sādhārana) with regard to these properties, is referred to (17.16). 545

The section on $v\bar{v}$ rya (17.17–23) is longer than in the Hrdaya (Sü.9.12cd–19)⁵⁴⁶ and discusses the concept of prabhāva. ⁵⁴⁷

The section on vipāka (17.24–32) is more elaborate too than in the *Hṛdaya* (Sū. 9.20–24). ⁵⁴⁸ Three grades are distinguished: alpatva, madhyatva and bhūyastva (17. 25). ⁵⁴⁹ A divergent opinion on vipāka, attributed to Parāśara, is mentioned. This authority, who is quoted, asserts that the vipāka of amla remains amla, that of kaṭu remains katu, while that of the remaining four tastes is madhura (17.26–28). ⁵⁵⁰

The interactions of rasa, $v\bar{v}$ rya and $vip\bar{a}$ ka are illustrated by a series of examples (17.29), 551

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.17.33 = A.h.S\bar{u}.9.25.$

Some additional verses (17.34-43) are concerned with rasa, vīrya and vipāka in general.

The (eight) properties of the series beginning with guru belong to the category called vīrya, the other properties are simply guṇas (17.44). The theory that the (vi)pāka of a substance is the same as its rasa⁵⁵² is rejected; this repudiation is underpinned by examples (17.45–51ab).

Rasa, vīrya and vipāka are not the main properties of a substance; the most important (pradhāna) one is prabhāva (17.51cd-52ab).

A.s.S \bar{u} .17.52cd-53 = A.h.S \bar{u} .9.26-27ab.

The series of examples of prabhāva is enlarged; prabhāva is said to be acintya (17. 54–59).⁵⁵³ The contrast between the actions of rasa, guna, vīrya and vipāka on the one hand, and of the incomprehensible prabhāva on the other, is stressed once again in the concluding verse (17.60).

The type of action called vicitrapratyayārabdha in the *Hṛdaya* (Sū.9.27cd-29) is absent.

Chapter eighteen (rasabhed $\bar{1}$ ya) forms for the larger part a parallel of the chapter with the same title of the H_I daya (S \bar{u} .1 O). 554

The chapter begins with the statement that rasa (taste), at first of a watery character and indistinct (avyakta), becomes of six kinds due to its contact with the qualities of the mahābhūtas (18.2).⁵⁵⁵

The mahābhautika composition of each of the tastes is explained (18.3). ⁵⁵⁶ Their characteristics are enumerated (18.4). ⁵⁵⁷ The actions on the human organism and the effects of over-use of each taste are elaborately described: madhura (18.5–7), ⁵⁵⁸ amla (18.8–9), ⁵⁵⁹ lavaṇa (18.10–11), ⁵⁶⁰ tikta (18.12–13), ⁵⁶¹ kaṭuka (18.14–16), ⁵⁶² and ka-sāya (18.17–18). ⁵⁶³

Substances and plants with predominance of one of the tastes are listed: madhura-skandha (18.19), ⁵⁶⁴ amlaskandha (18.20), ⁵⁶⁵ lavaṇaskandha (18.21), ⁵⁶⁶ tiktaskandha (18.22), ⁵⁶⁷ kaṭukaskandha (18.23), ⁵⁶⁸ kaṣāyaskandha (18.24); ⁵⁶⁹ the numbers of items are larger than those of the *Hṛdaya*. ⁵⁷⁰

Exceptions to particular regularities are mentioned (18.25).⁵⁷¹

The most prominent among the items of the six skandhas are enumerated; these are, in the proper order: ghee, \bar{a} malaka, saindhava salt, paṭol \bar{i} , $n\bar{a}$ gara, and abhay \bar{a} (18. 26–27). ⁵⁷²

The ānūpa and jāṅgala countries are described; the sweet taste is dominant in an ānūpa, the pungent taste in a jāṅgala country; a jāṅgala country is by far the most healthy type; ⁵⁷³ the ānūpasādhāraṇa type of country is dominated by the saltish and sour tastes, the jāṅgalasādhārana country by the bitter and astringent tastes. ⁵⁷⁴

The fifty-seven combinations of tastes are referred to (18.29).

These combinations are dealt with in verse; together with each of the six tastes, taken singly, the number becomes sixty-three (18.30-35ab). 575

The concluding verse is identical with A.h.Sū.10.44.

Chapter nineteen (doṣādivijñānīya), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (Sū.11), consists of a section in prose (19.1–10), followed by one in verse (19.11–38).

The section in prose deals with the following subjects: the roots of the body consist of doṣas, dhātus and malas; ⁵⁷⁶ the normal functions of vāta, pitta and kapha⁵⁷⁷ (19. 1), each of the seven bodily elements (dhātu), ⁵⁷⁸ and each of the three main types of impure matter (mala) ⁵⁷⁹ (19.2); the characteristic features of increased vāta, pitta and kapha ⁵⁸⁰ (19.3), each of the seven bodily elements, each of the three main malas, and the other malas (19.4); ⁵⁸¹ the characteristic features of decrease of vāta, pitta and kapha (19.5), ⁵⁸² each of the seven bodily elements, ⁵⁸³ each of the three main malas ⁵⁸⁴ (19. 6), and the minor malas; ⁵⁸⁵ a general remark about increase and decrease; increase of malas arises from excessive retention (atisaṅga), decrease from excessive elimination (atyutsarga); decrease of malas is more painful, due to its unusual character (anaucitya), than increase (19.7). ⁵⁸⁶

The contents of A.s.Sū.19.8 agree with those of A.h.Sū.11.26-29.

An additional passage (19.9) discusses the general principle that a constituent of the body increases by substances and activities possessing in large measure the same properties (samānaguṇabhūyiṣṭha), whereas decrease is the result of substances and activities with the opposite properties.⁵⁸⁷

The contents of A.s.Sū.19.10 agree with those of A.h.Sū.11.30-33.

The three verses which follow (19.11-13) develop the theme of A.h.Sū.11.34-35ab. Any bodily element (dhātu), increased or decreased, brings about the same

condition in the subsequent element of the series (19.14ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.19.14cd-15 = A.h.S\bar{u}.11.35cd-36.$

A series of additional verses are concerned with: the vāta diseases, which will be described in the chapter on these diseases of the Nidānasthāna (19.16ab); the signs indicating that pitta stays in the skin, blood, muscular tissue, fatty tissue, bones, bone marrow, and semen respectively (19.16cd–18), ⁵⁸⁸ and in the sirās, the snāyus, and the koṣtha (19.19); the signs indicating that kapha stays in these structures (19.20–23); the signs relating to faeces and urine will be dealt with in their proper context (19.24ab); the signs of the malas (= doṣas), when staying in the sense organs, are upatāpa and upaghāta ⁵⁸⁹ (19.24cd).

The causes of the movement of the dosas away from the kostha to the śākhās are mentioned; purification of the openings of the channels (srotomukhaviśodhana) leads them to the kostha again, where they remain, in an inactive state, until roused by suitable causes (19.25–29ab).

The description of ojas (19.29cd–32ab) agrees with A.h.Sū.11.37–39ab. A.s.Sū.19.32cd–38 = A.h.Sū.11.39cd–45.

Chapter twenty (doṣabhedīya), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (Sū.12), deals with: the main mahābhautika components of the doṣas: vāta is composed of air and ākāśa, pitta of fire, kapha of water and earth; ⁵⁹⁰ the several seats and the main seat of vāta, ⁵⁹¹ pitta, ⁵⁹² kapha; ⁵⁹³ the three doṣas brace the lower, middle and upper parts of the body like the posts (sthūṇā) of a house and are therefore also called sthūṇā; ⁵⁹⁴ they are designated as dhātus because they sustain (dhāraṇa) the body, as malas because they defile (malinīkaraṇa) the body and derive from the waste matter (mala) of the food, as doṣas because of their corrupting inherent nature (dūṣaṇasvabhāva) (20.1).

The five kinds of vāta are enumerated and their seats, functions, etc., listed (20.2), followed by the five kinds of pitta (20.3) and kapha (20.4). 596

The two types of vrddhi of a dosa are dealt with: caya and prakopa; factors leading to caya, prakopa and prasama of each dosa are mentioned (20.5). ⁵⁹⁷

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.20.6-7 = A.h.S\bar{u}.12.22cd-24ab.$

The importance of vata in imparting movement to the other dosas is stressed (20.8).

The eighty vāta disorders (20.9), forty pitta disorders (20.10) and twenty kapha disorders (20.11) are enumerated. ⁵⁹⁸ A number of these disorders are explained: ⁵⁹⁹ dāha, ⁶⁰⁰ oṣa, ⁶⁰¹ ploṣa, ⁶⁰² dava, ⁶⁰³ davathu, ⁶⁰⁴ vidāha, ⁶⁰⁵ antardāha, ⁶⁰⁶ dhūmaka, ⁶⁰⁷ amlaka, ⁶⁰⁸ śonitakleda, māṃsakleda, carmakotha, ⁶⁰⁹ trpti, ⁶¹⁴ tandrā, staimitya, ⁶¹¹ upalepa, ⁶¹² dhamanīpraticaya, ⁶¹³ agniśaitya, ⁶¹⁴ udarda ⁶¹⁵ (20.12).

Udarda is defined in a verse (20.13).616

The differences between mahāvikāras⁶¹⁷ and kṣudravikāras⁶¹⁸ are elucidated (20. 14). Diseases not described can be diagnosed by relying on the signs of the doṣas exhibited, and then treated accordingly (20.15); these signs have been described in the āyuṣkāmīya chapter (Sū.1). The main actions of the doṣas are listed (20.16).⁶¹⁹

Kapilabala is quoted, who declares that a disorder of the dosas can be diagnosed by means of inference, by taking into consideration the tastes associated with each dosa

(20.17). Thereupon, Suśruta is quoted who states that the taste of pitta, when vidagdha, becomes sour, and that of kapha saltish under the same circumstances; ⁶²⁰ Suśruta also holds that a disorder of the doşas can be known from the medical tradition (āgama), by perception (pratyaksa), and by inference (anumāna) (20.18).

The sixty-two different states of imbalance of the dosas are mentioned, classified into groups; ⁶²¹ the addition of the balanced state makes the number into sixty-three (20.19–24ab). ⁶²² The symptoms of six imbalances, in which one dosa is normal, one increased and one decreased, are described in more detail (20.24cd-31). ⁶²³ The remaining disorders should be diagnosed by the physician's own efforts (20.32), although, allowing for the combinations of dosic imbalances with disturbances of the seven dhātus, their number grows exceedingly (20.33). ⁶²⁴

Chapter twenty-one (doşopakramaṇīya) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū.13) of the Hṛdaya

The general treatment of vāta, pitta and kapha disorders $(21.1-3)^{625}$ is dealt with more elaborately than in the *Hrdaya* (Sū.13.1-12).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.21.4-5 = A.h.S\bar{u}.13.13-14.$

Verses on the relationships between the dosas and the tastes, the dosas and the seasons, the dosas and diet, are added (21.6–13).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.21.14 = A.h.S\bar{u}.13.15$.

Another series of additional verses deal with the order of treatment of excited dosas when they are of equal strength. Parāśara's opinion on this subject is quoted first (21.15–17), followed by another view (21.18–21), Suśruta's position (21.22–25), and one more stance (21.26–28).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.21.29 = A.h.S\bar{u}.13.16$.

The interactions of the doşas are declared not to result in reduction of their effects, in spite of their contrary properties and actions (21.30–32).

The characteristics are described of each dosa when loaded with āma and when devoid of it (21.33-35).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.21.36-42 = A.h.S\bar{u}.13.25-31.$

A.s.Sū.21.43 corresponds to A.h.Sū.13.32ab.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.21.44 = A.h.S\bar{u}.13.32cd-33ab.$

The subjects dealt with in the last part of A.h.Sū.13 are absent from this chapter of the Samgraha. 626

Chapter twenty-two (rogabhedīya) is concerned with the classification of diseases. It is in prose, apart from a group of verses at the end (22.12–18).

Seven categories of diseases (roga) are distinguished: sahaja, garbhaja, jātaja, pīḍāja, kālaja, prabhāvaja, and svabhāvaja. 627

Each of these is made up of two subcategories. Sahaja diseases, such as kuṣṭha, arśas and meha, arise from corrupted semen of the father or corrupted ārtava of the mother. Garbhaja diseases arise from a wrong diet of the expectant mother (annarasaja) or neglect of her longings during pregnancy (dauhrdavimānana); examples are klaibya, pāṅgulya, paṅgalya and kilāsa. Gap Jātaja diseases arise from one's own

wrong conduct, consisting of either sanıtarpana or apatarpana. ⁶³⁰ Pīdāja diseases ⁶³¹ are either bodily or mental; the bodily subcategory ⁶³² is caused by wounds (kṣata), fractures (bhaṅga), blows (prahāra), etc., the mental subcategory by anger, grief, fear, etc. Kālaja diseases arise from seasonal irregularities (vyāpannaja) or neglect of the rules of seasonal regimen (asaṃrakṣaṇaja). ⁶³³ Prabhāvaja diseases arise from offences against gods and gurus, curses, ātharvaṇa (practices), ⁶³⁴ etc., or from piśācas, etc. ⁶³⁵ Svabhāvaja diseases, such as hunger, thirst, etc., arise at a proper (kālaja) or improper time (akālaja). ⁶³⁶

All these diseases arise from bad acts committed during the present life (pratyutpannakarmaja), a former life (pūrvakarmaja), or a combination of both ⁶³⁷ (22.1). The general ways in which these diseases are alleviated are described. Some authorities add a category, called parābhisaṃskāra ja, that arises from acts of other persons, unfriendly disposed; ⁶³⁸ these diseases are not alleviated in the usual ways. ⁶³⁹ Diseases caused by the dosas are of seven kinds (22.2). ⁶⁴⁰

The importance of āyurveda and of the precepts of physicians is stressed and defended against objections relating to spontaneous cures, the influence of karman, etc. Diseases are classified as slight (mṛdu), moderate (madhya), and serious (atimātra). They are also offour types, i.e., easily curable, etc., as formerly explained. All diseases are either ni ja or āgantu (22.3).

The characteristic features of nija and āgantu diseases are described. Disease in general is discussed (22.4).

The dosas are the only causes of all diseases. Several similes are employed in illustrating this maxim (22.5).

The three causes (nimitta) of disorders of the doşas consist of asātmyendriyārthasaṃyoga, prajñāparādha and pariṇāma, each subdivided into atiyoga, ayoga and mithyāyoga; these concepts are elaborated, to begin with asātmyendriyārthasaṃyoga, in particular the mithyāyoga type ⁶⁴¹ (22.6). ⁶⁴² Subsequently, prajñāparādha ⁶⁴³ and parināma ⁶⁴⁴ are discussed (22.7). ⁶⁴⁵

General conditions, relating to the mentioned three types of yoga and other factors, which lead to the absence of disease, to slight disorders, or to the appearance of serious disorders respectively, are discussed (22.8). 646

The three pathways (marga) of diseases constitute the next subject (22.9). 647

Diseases are either independent (svapradhāna, svatantra, anubandhya) or subordinate (anyaparivāra, anubandha); the subordinate ones, which either precede (purogāmin) or follow upon (anugāmin) another disease are thus divided into prodromes (pūrvarūpa) and complications (upadrava); 648 their characteristic features and rules for their treatment 649 are formulated; diseases may act as the causes of other diseases (22. 10), 650

The examination of a patient should be carried out according to the tradition (ā-gama), by means of perception (pratyakṣa), and by means of inference (anumāna); the aspects to be examined in these three ways are enumerated (22.11). ⁶⁵¹ The importance of the knowledge gathered is stressed in a verse (22.12).

The next three verses are about major and minor ailments (guruvy \bar{a} dhi and laghuvy \bar{a} dhi) (22.13–15). 652

The concluding verses emphasize the necessity of a comprehensive knowledge of the medical science for the practising physician (22.16-17). ⁶⁵³

Chapter twenty-three (bhesa jāvacaranīya) has no counterpart in the Hrdaya.

A long passage in prose (23.2) gives a detailed list of questions a physician should ask himself before beginning to treat a particular patient. The same subject is pursued in the second passage: the physician should duly consider whether a disease is brought about by doṣas which are viṣamavikṛtisamaveta, he has to draw conclusions about the avayava-, samudāya-, vyādhi-, auṣadhaprabhāva, etc. (23.3).654 Having given careful thought to these issues, he may choose a suitable medicine (23.4), whether śodhana or śamana (23.5); this choice is dependent on general characteristics of the patient (23.6). The type of medicine and its properties should be thought over (23.7), the time of its administration (23.8), its source, time of collection, etc. (23.9–10), the suitability of the season, etc. (23.11).

The next section discusses the eleven proper times for the administration of a medicine, dependent on the stage of the disease: abhakta, prāgbhakta, madhyabhakta, adhobhakta, sabhakta, antarabhakta, sāmudga, muhurmuhur, sagrāsa, grāsāntara, and niśi (at night) (23.12–22).⁶⁵⁵

Some verses follow which deal with the danger of recurrence of a disease just treated and the means to avoid this (23.23–28). The next series of verses are about the proper periods of the year suitable to the elimination of accumulated doşas (23.29–30). 656

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.23.31 = A.h.S\bar{u}.13.36$.

One verse (23.32) declares that a particular course of treatment should be continued for at least a week before changing it; rash changes are warned against.

The requirements for medicines for royal use are specified (23.33–34).

A medicine originating from the country inhabited by the patient or one with similar properties is always the best choice (23.35).

Any medicine requires a careful preparation and administration (23.36).

Chapter twenty-four (dvividhopakramaṇīya) agrees for a large part with the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdava* (Sū.14).

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A.s.S\bar{u}.24.1-17 = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.1-19.
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A series of additional verses deal with the pathogenesis of obesity (sthaulya) (24. 18–24), the diseases that obese persons are prone to (24.25),⁶⁵⁷ and the treatment of very obese (atisthūla) patients (24.26–29ab).⁶⁵⁸

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A.s.S\bar{u}.24.29cd-31ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.22cd-24.
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The treatment of obesity and the disorders in its wake is more elaborately described than in the *Hrdaya*; some verses are added on this subject (24.31cd-36).

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A.s.S\bar{u}.24.37-40ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.25-28.
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An ardhaśloka (24.40cd) is added.

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A.s.S\bar{u}.24.41-43ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.29-31ab.
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The effects of exessive leanness (atikārśya) and the disorders resulting from it are more elaborately described (24.43cd-45ab) than in the *Hrdaya*.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.24.45cd-46 = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.31cd-33ab.$

The characteristics of an excessively lean person are enumerated (24.47) and the groups of drugs beneficial to him (24.48ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.24.48cd-49ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.34$

Verses added (24.49cd-51ab) are about the treatment of other disorders caused by a deficient intake of food (langhana).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.24.51 = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.35$.

Dietary prescriptions are given for persons who have excessively slimmed (24.52–57), 659

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.24.58 = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.36$.

Constitutional obesity and leanness are mentioned; the already described measures are applicable in these cases (24.59).

Restorative (bṛṇḥaṇa) and slimming measures (laṅghana) should be employed in their due measure (24.60-61ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.24.61c-f = A.h.S\bar{u}.14.37.$

Chapter twenty-five (snehavidhi) corresponds largely to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.16).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.1-6 = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.1-4.$

An additional ardhaśloka enumerates as sources offatty or oily substances (sneha): dadhi, milk, meat, bones, fruits, and woods (25.7ab). 660

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.7-13ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.5-12ab.$

A series of verses (25.13cd-16ab) describe the proper and improper times for oleation. 661

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.16cd-20ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.14cd-18.$

Additional verses are about indications for a small, moderate and large dose of sneha (25.20cd-25). 662

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.26-28 = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.19-21.$

The effects of a sneha used before, during and after a meal are described (25.29–30), 663 followed by the substances to be added to a sneha in disorders caused by vāta, pitta and kapha respectively (25.31). 664

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.32 = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.23.$

The signs indicating that the sneha drunk by the patient is being digested, and, finally, digested (25.33-35ab).⁶⁶⁵

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.35cd-40ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.24-29ab.$

A mild medicine ought to be prescribed before the drinking of a sneha (25.40c- f). 666

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.41 = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.29cd-30ab.$

The effects of proper and excessive oleation are discussed (25.42–43).

The signs of proper, improper and excessive oleation are described in more detail (25.44-46ab) than in the *Hrdaya*. 667

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.46cd-47ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.32-33ab.$

The list of disorders caused by a faulty application of sneha is longer (24.47cd-48ab) than in the *Hrdaya*.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.48cd-50ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.33cd-35.$

Complications of sneha and their treatment are discussed (25.50cd-55ab). ⁶⁶⁸ The drinking of pure ghee in a disorder by pitta, in particular in its sārna stage, is said to be life-threatening (25.55c-f). ⁶⁶⁹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.56-57ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.36-37ab.$

An ardhaśloka (25.57cd) is added, explaining the last word of 25.57b.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.58-60 = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.37cd-40ab.$

Additional verses (25.61-69) give more prescriptions for sadyahsneha. 670

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.25.70-72 = A.h.S\bar{u}.16.43cd-46.$

Chapter twenty-six (svedavidhi) contains additional material when compared with the corresponding chapter (Sū.17) of the *Hrdaya*.

The same four types of (agni)sveda are distinguished: tāpa, upanāha-, drava- and ūṣmasveda (26.2). The descriptions of the first three are somewhat more elaborate (26.2–4). Eight kinds of ūṣmasveda are distinguished and described: ⁶⁷¹ piṇḍa- or saṃ-karasveda (26.5), ⁶⁷² saṃstarasveda (26.6), ⁶⁷³ nāḍīsveda (26.7), ⁶⁷⁴ ghanāśmasveda (26.8), ⁶⁷⁵ kumbhīsveda (26.9), ⁶⁷⁶ kūpasveda (26.10), ⁶⁷⁷ kuṭīsveda (26.11), ⁶⁷⁸ and ientākasveda (26.12), ⁶⁷⁹

Tāpa- and ūşmasveda are indicated in disorders by kapha, upanāha in those by vāta, dravasveda in disorders where pitta is slightly involved (26.13).

Two types of sveda without making use of fire (an \bar{a} gneya) are described, along with their indications (26.14), 680

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.26.15-17 = A.h.S\bar{u}.17.12-14.$

The ways in which the eyes and the heart should be protected during sveda is dealt with (26.18-19ab). 681

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.26.19cd-31 = A.h.S\bar{u}.17.15-27.$

Rules for after-treatment are formulated (26.32); the beneficial effects of sveda are described (26.33).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.26.34 = A.h.S\bar{u}.17.29.$

Chapter twenty-seven (vamanavirecanavidhi) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū.18) of the *Hrdaya*

Vamana (emesis) and virecana (purgation, or a combination of emesis and purgation) are defined (27.2). ⁶⁸² The properties of emetic and purgative substances are enumerated and their actions explained (27.3). ⁶⁸³ The indications, with regard to the dosas, for emesis and purgation are given (27.4). ⁶⁸⁴

The diseases to be treated with emetics are listed (27.5),⁶⁸⁵ followed by the contraindications for emesis and the bad effects resulting from not observing these rules (27.6).⁶⁸⁶ The groups of patients among those mentioned as not suitable for emetic procedures, and who may not be submitted to the other methods yet to be described, up to dhūma, are listed; patients suffering from ajīrņa or a recent fever may be treated with emetics only (27.7).⁶⁸⁷

The diseases suitable to treatment with purgatives are enumerated (27.8), ⁶⁸⁸ followed by those unsuitable and the bad effects of transgressing these rules (27.9), ⁶⁸⁹

The procedure of the treatment with emetics is described (27.10–14).⁶⁹⁰

The properties emetics should possess in disorders by kapha, pitta and vāta are dealt with, and the signs indicating that the aim of the treatment has been reached (27.15). Some special rules are formulated (27.16). 691

The signs characteristic of deficient (27.17), adequate (27.18) and excessive application (27.19) are dealt with, ⁶⁹³ followed by the treatment to be employed after emesis (27.20–21). ⁶⁹⁴

The verses which follow upon the preceding passages in prose (27.22-25) are also found in the Hrdaya ($S\bar{u}.18.29-31$).

The way in which to prepare a course of purgative treatment, after a successful course with emetics, is described (27.26). ⁶⁹⁵ The necessity of emesis, before proceeding to purgation, is explained (27.27), and the reasons are given for the rule that an emetic works best when administered at a period of time connected with kapha (27. 28).

The three types of digestive system to be found in patients are discussed: mrdu-, krūra- and madhyamakostha (27.29).696 The types of purgative to be employed in disorders mainly due to pitta, kapha or vāta are mentioned. 697 The treatment after administration of a purgative is described (27.30).

The measures to be employed when the treatment is not or not sufficiently successful are discussed (27.31–32), 698 followed by the special treatment required in those who habitually restrain their natural urges, such as women, court officials, and merchants, and in those with similar unhealthy types of behaviour (27.33–34).

The signs indicating deficient, proper and excessive treatment with purgatives are described (27.35).⁶⁹⁹ The regimen after proper purgation is the same as after emesis, but medicinal smoking is not allowed (27.36).

Emetics may be given after digestion of the meal, purgatives after digestion of kapha (27.37ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.27.37cd-41 = A.h.S\bar{u}.18.44-48ab.$

The treatment to be employed when emetics lead to purgation and purgatives to vomiting (27.42).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.27.43-53 = A.h.S\bar{u}.18.48cd-60ab.$

The characteristics of a purgative or nirūha with a tīkṣṇa action are described (27. 54–55), followed by those of drugs in general which are tīkṣṇa; drugs with the opposite effects are manda in their actions (27.56–57).

Tīkṣṇa, madhya and mṛdu (= manda) medicines are required in tīkṣṇa, madhya and mṛdu diseases respectively (27.58).

Patients who are able to digest emetics and purgatives, and thus do not respond to them, should not be treated with these types of drugs (27.59–60).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.27.61 = A.h.S\bar{u}.18.60$.

Chapter twenty-eight (bastividhi) is more elaborate than the corresponding chapter (Sū. 19) of the *Hrdava*.

The importance of basti as a therapeutic method against vāta disorders, 700 and the predominant position of vāta as the leader (netar) among the dosas, are emphasized

(28.2-4). The categories of patients to whom basti is beneficial are enumerated (28.5).

In the same way as in the *Hṛdaya* (Sū.19.1d–2ab), three main types of basti are distinguished: āsthāpana, anuvāsana, and uttarabasti. The varieties of āsthāpana mentioned are: utkleśana, ⁷⁰¹ saṃśodhana, ⁷⁰² saṃśamana, ⁷⁰³ lekhana, ⁷⁰⁴ bṛṃhaṇa, ⁷⁰⁵ vā-jīkaraṇa, ⁷⁰⁶ picchābasti, ⁷⁰⁷ mādhutailika, ⁷⁰⁸ etc.; synonyms of mādhutailika basti are yāpana, ⁷⁰⁹ yuktaratha, ⁷¹⁰ doṣahara, ⁷¹¹ and snigdhabasti ⁷¹² (28.6). The etymologies of āsthāpana and its synonym nirūha are discussed (28.7). Anuvāsana is of four varieties when the four types of fatty substance (sneha) that may be used in its preparation are taken into consideration. A variety of anuvāsana is called mātrābasti (28.8). ⁷¹³ This mātrābasti can be used in the same way as the mādhutailika variety; the etymology of anuvāsana is discussed (28.9). An uttarabasti is śodhana, like a snehānuvāsana, but others are of the opinion that it resembles a nirūha (28.10).

The lists of disorders suitable to treatment with āsthāpana (28.1) and unsuitable to it (28.12) are longer than in the *Hṛdaya* (Sū.19.2c–3 and 4–6ab). Some explanations follow (28.13). The indications for anuvāsana are identical with those for āsthāpana; categories of patients to whom it is particularly useful are mentioned separately; the same applies to the contra-indications; those patients in whom anuvāsana should be avoided in particular are separately mentioned (28.14).⁷¹⁴

A series of verses (28.15–20ab) give a detailed explanation of the rule that an anuvāsana has to be administered on an empty stomach, but a nirūha after a meal.

Contra-indications for snehabasti are formulated (28.20).

The materials for the tube, its dimensions in various age groups, the karnikās, etc., are described (28.21),⁷¹⁵ followed by the materials for the pouch and the way to fasten it to the tube (28.22).⁷¹⁶ Substitutes when the proper materials for the pouch are unavailable are enumerated (28.23).⁷¹⁷

The doses of an āsthāpana for various age groups are mentioned. ⁷¹⁸ Some authorities are of the opinion that the maximum dose is not twelve, but only eight prasṛta (28.24). The proper dose for a mādhutailika enema is one quarter less than that for an āsthāpana, that for an anuvāsana is one quarter of that for an āsthāpana⁷¹⁹ (28.25).

General rules for the application of an \bar{a} sth \bar{a} pana, and for the procedures that should precede it, are formulated (28.26). 720

The opinion of the Dhanvantarīyas is quoted in verse: a clyster should not be applied at night, except under particular circumstances (28.27–29ab).

The technique of administering a clyster is elaborately described (28.29–31). ⁷²¹ A divergent opinion declaring that the pouch should be pressed during a period of thirty mātrā is referred to (28.31). The after-treatment is then dealt with (28.32). ⁷²²

The application of an anuvāsana should be repeated on the third or fifthday, or, in particular cases, daily (28.33). 723

The preparation of the medicine ought to be accompanied by ritual acts, honouring along series of deities and sages: Nātha Āryāvalokita, Āryatārā, Ātmabhū (= Brahmā), Dhātar, the Aśvins, Indra, Ātreya, the seven sages, Kāśirāja, Videhapati, etc., Agniveśa and the other authors of treatises (28.34). 724

The preparation of a nirūha is described (28.35),⁷²⁵ followed by the way to administer it properly (28.36).⁷²⁶ The bad effects of faulty ways of administration are dealt

with in verse (28.37-39).727

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.28.40-42 = A.h.S\bar{u}.19.43d-46ab.$

The correct procedure after administering a nirūha is discussed (28.43),⁷²⁸ followed by what to do if it comes out spontaneously; in that case, a second, third, fourth enema, or even a larger number, are required until the proper effect is reached (28.44),⁷²⁹

The first nirūha draws out vāta, the second pitta, the third kapha (28.45).

The effects of deficient, proper and excessive treatment are the same as those described in the treatment with purgatives. The treatment after proper administration of a nirūha is discussed (28.46),⁷³⁰ and the treatment with an anuvāsana of patients suffering from vāta; the signs pointing to deficient, proper and excessive administration of such an anuvāsana are like those after drinking a sneha (28.47).⁷³¹ The signs after proper treatment are described (28.48).⁷³²

A.s.Sū.28.49ab is a variant of A.h.Sū.19.54cd.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.28.49cd-54ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.19.55-59.$

A.s.Sū.28.54c—f agrees with A.h.Sū.19.60, but identifies the anonymous authority of the *Hrdaya* as Caraka.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.28.55-61 = A.h.S\bar{u}.19.61-67ab.$

The marvellous effects of eighteen series of eighteen enemas are described (28.62–63). 733

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.28.64-80 = A.h.S\bar{u}.19.70-84.^{734}$

Chapter twenty-nine (nasyavidhi) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū.20) of the *Hrdaya*.

The way of action of errhines (nāvana, nastahkarman) is explained (29.2).⁷³⁵

The indications for the virecana, bṛṇṭhaṇa and śamana types of errhine are described, together with specifications regarding their preparation (29.3-6). ⁷³⁶

Several types of nasya are discussed, their basic differences, and the materials to be employed in their preparation; the types of nasya are: marśa, pratimarśa, avapīḍa, pradhamana. and śirovirecana (29.7).⁷³⁷

The preparation of two varieties of anutaila is described (29.8-9).⁷³⁸

Contra-indications for the administration of an errhine are given; the disorders are described which would result from neglect of these rules (29.10). ⁷³⁹ Alternative treatments are dealt with (29.11).

The doses of a marśa and the way to administer a pradhamana are described (29. 12). ⁷⁴⁰ The general procedure for the application of an errhine forms the next subject (29.13). ⁷⁴¹ It is followed by the proper periods of day and night for the administration; these depend on the doşa involved and the season (29.14). ⁷⁴²

Faultive ways of administration and their injurious consequences are dealt with (29. 15).

Next, the after-treatment is described, the repetition of the administration of the errhine, the intervals, the diet to be observed, etc. (29.16), ⁷⁴³ the results of proper treatment, deficient and excessive treatment, etc. (29.17). ⁷⁴⁴

The indications and contra-indications for a pratimarsa and the fifteen occasions

on which it is useful⁷⁴⁵ are discussed (29.18). ⁷⁴⁶

The last portion of the chapter is in verse (29.19-25).

The proper dose of a pratimarsa is described (29.19-20ab).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.29.20cd-25 = A.h.S\bar{u}.20.30cd-36.$

Chapter thirty (dhūmapānavidhi) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū.21) of the *Hrdaya*

The indications ⁷⁴⁷ and general actions of medicinal smoking (dhūmapāna) are mentioned first (30.2). ⁷⁴⁸ Two series of three types are distinguished: śamana, brmhana and śodhana, kāsaghna, vāmana and vraṇadhūpana; śamana is also known as prāyogika and madhyama, brmhana as snehana and mrdu, śodhana as virecana and tīkṣṇa (30.3). ⁷⁴⁹ The contraindications are discussed (30.4), ⁷⁵⁰ followed by the disorders due to improper application and their treatment (30.5–6). ⁷⁵¹ The prāyogika type is useful on eight, the mrdu type on eleven, the tīkṣṇa type on five occasions (30.7). ⁷⁵²

The smoking apparatus is described and its general dimensions; the divergent dimensions for kāsaghna, vāmana and vraṇadhūpana aims are mentioned (30.8); 753 substitute materials for the tube used for kāsaghna smoking, etc., are enumerated (30.9).

The preparation of the wick (varti) is dealt with (30.10), ⁷⁵⁴ followed by the proper technique of inhaling medicinal smoke (30.11). ⁷⁵⁵

The rules for the prāyogika, snaihika and tīkṣṇa types are formulated (30.12–14),⁷⁵⁶ followed by those for the remaining three types (30.15–16).⁷⁵⁷

The signs of deficient treatment are mentioned (30.17), followed, in verse, by those of successful application (30.18-19). ⁷⁵⁸

Chapter thirty-one (gaṇḍūṣādividhi) 759 corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū. 22) of the *Hrdaya*.

A.s.Sū.31.2 agrees with A.h.Sū.22.1–2a in distinguishing four kinds of gaṇḍūṣa; it adds three synonyms of the śamana type: stambhana, prasādana, nirvāpaṇa. The materials to be used in the preparation of these types are dealt with next (31.3).⁷⁶⁰

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.31.4-8 = A.h.S\bar{u}.22.5-9.$

The proper way of taking a gaṇḍūṣa is described, 761 its three dosages, and the difference between a gaṇḍūṣa and a kavala (31.9). This difference is expressed again in a verse (31.10). 762

The preparatory treatment, the time during which the fluid should be held within the oral cavity, 763 the number of times the procedure should be repeated, and the signs of proper, deficient and excessive treatment are dealt with (31.11). 764

The three kinds of pratisāraṇa are mentioned, the materials to be employed, indications for its use, and the disorders arising from over-application (31.12). 765

The next subjects are mukhālepa, its three varieties, its dosages, things to be avoided during treatment, the way to apply the ālepa and remove it again, the after-treatment (31.13), ⁷⁶⁶ contra-indications, and beneficial effects of correct application (31.14). ⁷⁶⁷

The four kinds of mūrdhataila and their relative merits are dealt with (31.15), 768

followed by the technique of applying a śirobasti (31.16). 769

A.s. $S\bar{u}$.31.17–18 = A.h. $S\bar{u}$.22.24cd–26. A.s. $S\bar{u}$.31.19–21 = A.h. $S\bar{u}$.22.34, 32, 33.

Chapter thirty-two (āścyotanāñ janavidhi) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū.23) of the *Hrdaya*.

Āścyotana (the application of eyedrops) is the foremost way of treatment of eye diseases; ⁷⁷⁰ the application of a paste (ālepana), called bidāla, is indicated in not yet fully developed eye diseases (32.2). The technique, proper place and time, dose, etc., and the signs of improper application are discussed (32.3). ⁷⁷¹ The way in which an āścyotana brings about the desired effect is then dealt with (32.4). ⁷⁷² After successful administration of an āścyotana, an añ jana (collyrium) should be applied (32.5). ⁷⁷³

Four types of añ jana are distinguished; lekhana, ropaṇa, snehana and prasādana. ⁷⁷⁴ The materials to be used in each of these types are specified and the indications listed (32.6–10). ⁷⁷⁵ The snehana type is prepared with the fat of snakes, etc., and employed in timira by vāta, etc. (32.8). The prasādana type is called pratyañjana when used to counteract irritation of the eyes by a tīkṣṇa añjana (32.10). ⁷⁷⁶ Six kinds of añjana are distinguished according to the taste predominantly present. ⁷⁷⁷ Añjanas are also either tīkṣṇa or mṛdu (32.10). An añjana may be prepared as a piṇ�a, rasakriyā or cūrṇa; the relative merits of these varieties and their indications, together with the quantities to be applied, are described (32.11). ⁷⁷⁸

The material for the containers to store añjanas is mentioned and said to depend on the predominant taste of the preparation; the material for the grinding slab and its dimensions are also specified (32.12).⁷⁷⁹

Five kinds of śalākā for the application of an añjana are described (32.13).⁷⁸⁰

The suitable periods of time and the frequency of application are specified (32. 14).⁷⁸¹

An añjana should be applied to the diseased eye first, afterwards to the other eye; añjanas which are too cold, etc., hurt the eye and make the disease more serious⁷⁸² (32.15).

The contra-indications are listed and the disorders which would follow on not keeping to these rules (32.16). 783

The technique of applying an añjana is described (32.17), ⁷⁸⁴ followed by the after-treatment (32.18–20). ⁷⁸⁵ The special treatment after a tīkṣṇa añjana is discussed, and the problems that may arise after incorrect application (32.21). ⁷⁸⁶

The physician should also turn his thoughts to the healing process, etc. (32.22).

Chapter thirty-three (tarpaṇapuṭapākavidhi) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū.24) of the *Hrd*aya.

The indications, contra-indications and technique of applying tarpaṇa to the eyes is described (24.2–5). ⁷⁸⁷ After tarpaṇa, a puṭapāka should be applied. This preparation is of three types: snehana, lekhana and prasādana (24.6); the materials to be used in preparing them and their indications are mentioned (24.7–9), ⁷⁸⁸ followed by the technique of preparing and administering a puṭapāka (24.10–11). ⁷⁸⁹

The concluding verse says that disorders arising from incorrect application (vidhi-vibhraṃśa) of seka, añjana, tarpaṇa and puṭapāka should be treated in a suitable way (24.12).

Chapter thirty-four (yantraśastravidhi) corresponds to chapter 25 (yantravidhi) and part of chapter 26 (śastravidhi) of the Sūtrasthāna of the *Hrdaya*. ⁷⁹⁰

Six groups of yantras are enumerated (34.2).⁷⁹¹ Others state that the number of yantras is 101,⁷⁹² but in this treatise six groups will be described, called svastika, samdamśa, tāla, nādī, śalākā, and anuyantra (34.3).

The characteristics and uses are described of various types of svastika (34.4), ⁷⁹³ three kinds of saṃdaṃśa (34.5), ⁷⁹⁴ the mucutī (34.6), ⁷⁹⁵ two kinds of tālayantra (34.7), ⁷⁹⁶ various kinds of nādīyantra (34.8–9), ⁷⁹⁷ three types of arśoyantra (the third type is the śamīyantra) (34.10), ⁷⁹⁸ the bhagandarayantra (34.10), ⁷⁹⁹ the ghrāṇārśaḥ- and ghrāṇārbudayantra (34.10), ⁸⁰⁰ the aṅgulītrāṇaka (34.11), ⁸⁰¹ yonivraṇadarśaṇayantra (34.12), ⁸⁰² nādīvraṇaprakṣālaṇābhyaṇ̄ jaṇayantra (34.12), ⁸⁰³ ubhayatodvārāṇāḍīyantra (34.12), ⁸⁰⁶ various types of śalākā: two śalākās with a gaṇḍūṇadamukha, two with a masūradalamukha, ⁸⁰⁷ six of the śaṅku type (two with a ahiphaṇāmukha, two with a śarapuṅkhamukha, two with a baḍiśamukha), ⁸⁰⁸ the garbhaśaṅku, agravakraśaṅku, and dantanirghātana (34.14), ⁸⁰⁹ various uṣṇīṣaśalākas, ⁸¹⁰ three jāmbavoṣṭhas (34.15), ⁸¹¹ various other types of śalākā (34.16), ⁸¹² and a series of anuyantras (34.17) ⁸¹³ which are to be made use of according to the purposes they are suitable to (34.18). ⁸¹⁴

The twenty-four therapeutic uses of yantras are listed (34.19).815

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.34.20 = A.h.S\bar{u}.25.42.$

The next section is concerned with the sastras. Twenty-six of these instruments are enumerated: dantalekhana, mandalāgra, vṛddhipattra, utpalapattra, adhyardhadhāra, mudrikā, ⁸¹⁶ kartarī, sarpavaktra, ⁸¹⁷ karapattra, kusapattra, ⁸¹⁸ āṭīmukha, ⁸¹⁹ antarmukha, ⁸²⁰ śarārīmukha, ⁸²¹ trikūrca, kuṭhārikā, vrīhimukha, śalākā, vetasapattra, ⁸²² ārā, karṇavyadhana, ⁸²³ sūcī, sūcīkūrca, ⁸²⁴ khaja, eṣaṇī, badiśa, and nakhaśastra; ⁸²⁵ the requirements for these instruments are formulated ⁸²⁶ (34.21). The śastras employed in the twelve main therapeutic actions are specified (34.22).

A large part of these instruments and their functions are described: dantalekhana, ⁸²⁸ mandalāgra ⁸²⁹ (34.23), vrddhipattra (34.24), ⁸³⁰ anguliśastraka (34.25), ⁸³¹ kartarī, ⁸³² sarpavaktra, ⁸³³ karapattra, ⁸³⁴ kuśapattra, ⁸³⁵ āṭīmukha, ⁸³⁶ antarmukha ⁸³⁷ (34.26), kuṭhārikā, ⁸³⁸ vrīhimukha, ⁸³⁹ śalākā ⁸⁴⁰ (34.27), ārā, ⁸⁴¹ karnavyadhana ⁸⁴² (34.28), three kinds of sūcī (34.29), ⁸⁴³ sūcīkūrca, ⁸⁴⁴ khaja, ⁸⁴⁵ two kinds of eṣaṇī, ⁸⁴⁶ badiśa, ⁸⁴⁷ and nakhaśastra ⁸⁴⁸ (34.30).

Not described are the utpalapattra, 849 adhyardhadhāra, 850 śarārīmukha, 851 trikūrca, 852 and vetasapattra. 853

The anuśastras are enumerated; 854 the hand is the most important among these (34. 31).

The eight defects of blunt (yantradoşa) and sharp instruments (śastradoşa) are listed; 855 the karapattra has a special position 856 (34.32).

Three fluids for tempering steel are mentioned, followed by the uses of cutting

instruments tempered in these fluids (34.33). ⁸⁵⁷ Requirements for the edge (dhārā) of groups of sharp instruments for particular purposes are formulated (34.34). ⁸⁵⁸ The ways of handling surgical instruments are described (34.35), ⁸⁵⁹ the whetstone, ⁸⁶⁰ and a piece of śālmalī wood for smoothening (dhārāsaṃsthāpana) ⁸⁶¹ (34.36).

The importance of acquiring practical skills is emphasized; suitable objects for training are mentioned (34.37).862

Dissection is dealt with (34.38).863

A physician's knowledge derives from a combination of what (the tradition of) his science teaches and what has been observed with his own eyes (34.39).864

The chapter ends with verses describing the case (kośa) for surgical instruments (34.40--41 = A.h.Sū.26.33-34).

Chapter thirty-five (jalaukovidhi) deals with the same subjects as the last part of A.h. Sū.26.

Indications for drawing blood by means of leeches (jalaukas) are given (35.2). 865

Leeches are of two kinds: poisonous and non-poisonous. The places of origin and external characteristics of poisonous leeches are described, together with the disorders their bite may give rise to and the treatment of these disorders; ⁸⁶⁶ the places of origin and characteristics of non-poisonous leeches are dealt with next (35.3). ⁸⁶⁷

The maximum length of leeches is eighteen angula. Those measuring four to six angula are fit for human use; the longer ones are employed in veterinary medicine. The characteristics enabling one to distinguish male from female leeches are discussed, and the indications for their application. The way to keep and feed them is dealt with, followed by the method to be employed in applying them and removing them again after they ingested the patient's corrupted blood⁸⁶⁸ (35.4).

The leeches should be made to vomit the blood and can be used again after a week. 869 The after-treatment of the patient is discussed (35.5). 870

Indications and contra-indications for cupping by means of a horn (\pm nga), gourd (alāba), or small pot (ghaṭikā) are given (35.6).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.35.7~11 = A.h.S\bar{u}.26.51-56.$

Chapter thirty-six (sirāvyadhavidhi) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū. 27) of the *Hrdava*.

Phlebotomy (sirāvyadha) is declared to be the most important method of blood-letting (raktāvasecana) (36.2); it holds the same place in surgery as the application of clysters (basti) in internal medicine (36.3-4).

The origin and normal characteristics of blood are described;⁸⁷² it is of both a saumya and āgneya nature; blood is regarded as a doṣa, but some hold it to be a dūṣya, while others again say that it shares the nature of both (36.5). The effects on the body of blood in a normal state are dealt with, followed by a list of disorders arising from corrupted blood; when these cannot be cured by measures directed against the doṣas, they should be diagnosed as brought about by excitation of blood and, accordingly, treated by phlebotomy ⁸⁷³ (36.6).

Contra-indications for phlebotomy are listed; 874 the procedure to be adopted when

the blood does not flow out properly is described; cases where the contra-indications do not apply are mentioned ⁸⁷⁵ (36.7).

The places where phlebotomy should be carried out in a long series of diseases are enumerated (36.8). 876

The preparations to be made by the physician are described: drugs that should be available, etc. (36.9). The technique of phlebotomy is dealt with in detail (36.10).⁸⁷⁷ More instructions are given regarding the techniques of ligating vessels in various locations and piercing them (36.11).⁸⁷⁸ The various depths of the incision, dependent on the structure of the tissues, is discussed (36.12),⁸⁷⁹ followed by the signs indicating that the incision has been made properly, defectively or excessively (36.13–14).⁸⁸⁰

The causes of a failing of blood to appear are dealt with, the procedure to be followed in such a case, and the after-treatment (36.15). 881

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.36.16 = A.h.S\bar{u}.27.38.$

The procedure to be adopted when the patient faints is described. 882 The maximum amount of blood to be let is one prastha, 883 or somewhat more, dependent on the strength of the patient and the season (36.17).

The characteristics of blood corrupted by vāta, pitta, kapha, two doṣas, and all three doṣas are described,⁸⁸⁴ followed by the care for the patient after bloodletting (36.18),⁸⁸⁵ and the treatment to be followed when the flow of blood does not stop (36.19),⁸⁸⁶

A verse (36.20) states that blood is like prāṇa; loss of blood leads to weakness of the fire, which, in its turn, makes vāta increase.

When the corrupted blood has not disappeared completely, the letting should be repeated, the same day or the next day; the remnant left may be removed by other means, or phlebotomy should be carried out again after a month. Problems arisen from a faulty technique should be managed suitably (36.21). 887

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.36.22-24 = A.h.S\bar{u}.27.51-53.$

Chapter thirty-seven (salyāharaṇavidhi) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Sū.28) of the *Hṛdaya*.

Foreign bodies (śalya) may penetrate the body in three ways (gati): from above, from below and moving horizontally; each track may be straight or crooked (37.2).⁸⁸⁸ The general characteristics of a wound (vraṇa) containing a foreign body are described (37.3), ⁸⁸⁹ followed by the characteristics of wounds where the foreign body is present in the layers of the skin, the muscular tissue (māṇsa) (37.4), a muscle (peśī), sirā, snāva (37.5), srotas, dhamanī, bone (37.6), joint, both bone and joint (37.7), the koṣtha, and a marman (37.8).⁸⁹⁰ The type of exudation (parisrāva) is also characteristic.⁸⁹¹ Small foreign bodies produce the same signs to a lesser degree (37.9).

The wound may heal first, but pain will arise later, when the dosas have become excited (37.10). 892

The treatment to be applied when the foreign body resides in the layers of the skin or the muscular tissue is described, as well as measures enabling the physician to detect its location (37.11). Similar methods are suitable when the foreign body has got stuck in the kostha, a bone, muscle (pes \bar{i}), or a cavity (vivara) (37.12). 893

A special method for extracting a firmly lodged foreign body is described (37. 13). 894 Methods for detecting a foreign body present in a joint, bone (37.14) or marinan (37.15) are dealt with. 895 General signs pointing to the precise location of a foreign body are discussed (37.16). 896

Foreign bodies are either round, or may have two, three or four angles; their shape should be deduced (from the type of wound) when they are invisible (37.17). 897

The anuloma and pratiloma ways of extraction are described (37.18–19), ⁸⁹⁸ contraindications for extraction (37.20–21), ⁸⁹⁹ and a series of special methods for the extraction of foreign bodies (37.20–30). ⁹⁰⁰

The subjects discussed next are the treatment of drowning, the removal of foreign objects and other things from the throat and the eyes (37.31–32),⁹⁰¹ and the removal of small animals from the ears (37.33),⁹⁰²

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.37.34 = A.h.S\bar{u}.28.43.$

Objects which do not disintegrate spontaneously within the body are enumerated (37.35). 903

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.37.36-39 = A.h.S\bar{u}.28.44cd-48$.

The signs indicating that the foreign body has been removed are described (37.40). The concluding verse compares the human body to a foreign body, but a foreign body, like, for example, an arrow, present in this human body, deserves attention (37.41).

Chapter thirty-eight (śastrakarmavidhi) deals with the same subjects as the corresponding chapter (Sū.29) of the *Hrdaya*.

Surgical measures (śastrakarman) are applicable to both nija and \bar{a} gantu diseases (38.2).

In the early stage, characterized by swelling (śvayathu) only, the signs pointing to involvement of vāta, pitta, kapha or blood, or a combination of two or more of them simultaneously, should be taken into consideration, ⁹⁰⁴ and adequate treatment carried out, in order to prevent development of suppuration (pāka) (38.3). ⁹⁰⁵ When no alleviation occurs, pravilayana (liquefying measures) is necessary, and, in case this has no result, upanāhana (the application of poultices) (38.4).

The characteristics of an immature (āma) swelling (38.5), ⁹⁰⁶ a swelling in the stage of maturation (pacyamāna) (38.6), ⁹⁰⁷ and a mature (pakva) swelling (38.7) ⁹⁰⁸ are described.

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.8-9 = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.6cd-8ab.$

Pāka of blood occurs in some cases of swelling due to kapha; its characteristics are dealt with (38.10), 909

Indications are given for the treatment of ripe swellings with either dāraṇa by means of drugs, or by the surgical procedure called pāṭana (38.11). 910 The disorders that may arise from pāṭana of an unripe swelling are enumerated (38.12). 911

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.13-14 = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.12cd-14ab.$

A.s.Sū.38.15-16ab agrees with A.h.Sū.29.14cd-16ab.

The technique of pātana is described (38.16); 912 rules for the depth of the incision and the way of probing with an esinī, etc., are formulated (38.17), 913

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.18-19 = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.20-22ab.$

The places where a tiryakcheda is required are listed; when practised elsewhere, complications would arise (38.20). 914 The treatment to be applied after making an incision is discussed next (38.21). 915 Specifications regarding the number of windings (vestana) of the dressing (patta) are given (38.22), 916 followed by the medical and religious treatment required when persisting pain occurs (38.23). 917

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.24 = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.31.$

The seat and couch of the patient should be furnigated. ⁹¹⁸ The regimen to be observed is referred to; sleeping by day is to be avoided in particular (38.25–26). ⁹¹⁹

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.27 = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.33.$

The diet to be observed is specified (38.28, prose). 920

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.28$ (verse) = $A.h.S\bar{u}.29.38$.

Articles of diet to be avoided are listed (38.29).921

A.s. $S\bar{u}$. 38.30–32 = A.h. $S\bar{u}$. 29.40cd–43ab.

Treatment of the wound should be repeated every third day; when carried out earlier, complications will arise (38.33). ⁹²² Rules for the plug (vikeśikā) are given and its beneficial effects described (38.34–35). ⁹²³

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.36 = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.48.$

Suturing (sīvana), the suitable materials, etc., are discussed next (38.37). 924

Rules for the technique are formulated; ⁹²⁵ types of suture and the after-treatment ⁹²⁶ are dealt with. Four kinds of suture are distinguished: goṣphaṇikā, tunnasīvana, vellitaka, and rajjugranthi⁹²⁷ (38.38). Contra-indications (38.39) and indications for suturing (38.40) are dealt with. ⁹²⁸

Next, the fifteen kinds of bandage (bandha) are enumerated (38.41) and the parts of the body to which they may be applied. ⁹²⁹ Wounds and ulcers should not be bandaged, nor should a bandage squeeze and cause pain (38.42). ⁹³⁰

Bandages can be wound to the left or to the right (38.43); they may be tight (gā-dha), slack (ślatha, śithila), or even (sama); each of these three types is appropriate to a particular constellation of the doṣa(s) involved (38.44-45ab) and particular parts of the body (38.45; prose); ⁹³¹ some more rules on the same subject follow. ⁹³² The disorders are described which may arise without bandaging (38.46). ⁹³³ The advantages of bandaging are praised (38.47). ⁹³⁴

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.48-55 = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.69-77ab.$

The need to treat ulcers infested with maggots is stressed (38.56); this should be done carefully, without any haste (38.57).⁹³⁵

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.38.58ab = A.h.S\bar{u}.29.78cd.$

After healing of an ulcer, the patient should continue avoiding particular things during six or seven months (38.58cd).

The treatment of wounds and ulcers (vraṇa) will be dealt with in more detail in the Uttarasthāna (38.59).

Chapter thirty-nine (kṣārapākavidhi) corresponds to the first part of the last chapter of the Sūtrasthāna of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.30). 937

Caustics (kṣāra) are said to be very important in medical practice; they possess

all the tastes, but are in particular kaṭuka and lavaṇa; tīkṣṇa and uṣṇa are their most outstanding properties; their actions are dahana, pācana, vidāraṇa, vilāyana, śodhana and ropaṇa; they remove parasites, āma, medas and viṣa. They are used for two purposes: external and internal parimārjana (39.2). ⁹³⁸ Indications for each of both types of parimārjana are enumerated (39.3), ⁹³⁹ followed by contra—indications for the use of a caustic (39.4). ⁹⁴⁰

A kṣāra for external use is of three types: mṛdu, madhya and tīkṣṇa. The rituals to be performed on the day before chopping down a tree suitable to the preparation of a caustic is dealt with (39.5–7). The way to prepare a madhyamakṣāra from the tree, felled the next day; is described in detail (39.8). The substances to be employed in the preparation of a mṛdu and a tīkṣṇa caustic are mentioned. Such a caustic is ready for use after a week. The ten good and the ten bad qualities of caustics are listed (39.9). Odd

The technique of applying a caustic in general and many special rules for the application in a long series of diseases affecting particular parts of the body are dealt with next, followed by prescriptions for the after-treatment (39.10). 944

The signs pointing to proper, deficient and excessive burning with a caustic are described, followed by those indicating excessive treatment of particular parts of the body. 945 The proper remedial measure after excessive burning is nirvapana 946 (39.11).

 $A.s.S\bar{u}.39.12 = A.h.S\bar{u}.30.39.$

The treatment of the disorders caused by excessive use of a kṣāra is discussed (39. 13–16). After this, a kṣāra should be applied again, in the proper measure; cooling measures are necessary in cases of excessive bleeding (39.17–18). 947

Chapter forty (agnikarmavidhi) corresponds to the second part of the last chapter of the Sūtrasthāna of the *Hrdaya* (Sū.30).

Cauterization (agnikarman) is declared to be even more efficient than the application of caustics. ⁹⁴⁸ Tissues and bodily structures to be treated by this method are the skin, muscular tissue, sirās, snāyus, joints and bones. ⁹⁴⁹ Diseases to be managed by a particular type of cauterization, tissues and bodily structures suitable to a particular type, and the instruments and substances to be employed in these types are enumerated ⁹⁵⁰ (40.2).

The contra-indications for applying cautery are listed (40.3). ⁹⁵¹ The technique ⁹⁵² and the after-treatment ⁹⁵³ are dealt with next (40.4).

The signs pointing to successful cauterization of the skin, muscular tissue, sirās, and snāyus, etc., are described (40.5). ⁹⁵⁴ The four types of pramādadagdha (burns caused by improper cautery) are discussed: tuttha, ⁹⁵⁵ durdagdha, samyagdagdha ⁹⁵⁶ and atidagdha. ⁹⁵⁷ The very bad effects of burns by oil are noticed (40.6).

The treatment to be applied in these types of pramādadagdha and in burns by oil is described in verse (40.7–14ab). 958

A physician is advised to be very careful in applying sharp surgical instruments, caustics and cautery (40.14c-f). 959

The last verse says that the Sütrasthāna, dealing with subtle subjects, is completed now (40.41).

Chapter 2 Śārīrasthāna

Chapter one (putrakāmīya), which corresponds to part of the first chapter of the Śārīrasthana of the Hrdaya, deals with the following subjects: the features making a girl eligible as a bride for a man; 1 the girl should be twelve, the man twenty-one years of age (1.2); the age for begetting a first child: sixteen years for the female, twenty-five years for the male partner; 2 the problems that may arise when the partners are younger; 3 the same problems are likely to occur when conception takes place during the first three nights of the first fertile period (1.3);⁴ the physiology of the production of male and female seed (śukra), its ejaculation, its properties 5 (1.4); the female procreational fluid (rakta) accumulates every month in the uterus (garbhakostha), whence it flows out as the menstrual discharge for three days; when the amount of this discharge is too large or when it flows out during a longer time, or when it appears during another part of the cycle, the disorder is called asrgdara, pradara or raktayoni; its treatment may be looked up in the chapters on the therapy of raktapitta and guhyaroga (1.5):6 amenorrhoea appears when vata and kapha cover the pathways of the procreational fluid; pittaproducing measures are then required; 7 when this disorder progresses and the procreational fluid remains inside, 8 whether combined with sukra or not, it may develop into gulma and bring about signs of pregnancy, in particular when the woman indulges in vāta-promoting articles of diet and behaviour; its treatment is described in the chapter on gulma (1.6); vātodara, which resembles pregnancy, sometimes develops; it is alleviated by measures counteracting vata (1.7); this disorder sometimes progresses, thus simulating an established pregnancy and becoming a trap to foolish physicians; when, later, due to contrary factors or accidentally (yadrcchayā), blood begins to appear, without any sign of a child to be born, these fools say that the foetus has been taken away by a bhūta; however, the beings called raksas 10 deprive a pregnant woman and her child of their ojas only, but do not take away the child's body, because they are not keen on this or unable to do so; anyhow, the taking away of a body by non-human beings has never been observed (1.8); the author objects to those who nevertheless assert that this happens sometimes by declaring that it is hard to explain why these very powerful beings carry off the unborn child only and desist from attacking the mother's body (1.9); 11 the characteristics of a pure menstrual discharge (ārtava) (1.10); 12 the reproductive age ranges from sixteen to seventy in males, from twelve to fifty in females (1.11); ¹³ the preparation of a couple for sexual intercourse (1.12); ¹⁴ the disorders of the male seed are those caused by vata, pitta, and kapha, and those called kunapagandhi-, granthi-, pūya-, ksīna-, mūtra-, and purīsaretas; 15 these disorders result in infertility; 16 the characteristics of seed corrupted by vata, pitta, or kapha; 17 the relationships between the other disorders and the doṣas, respectively blood ¹⁸ (1.13); the disorders of the ārtava are the same as those of the male seed, their relationships with the doṣas and blood are identical, and they also lead to infertility; ¹⁹ the degrees of curability of the disorders of śukra and ārtava ²⁰ (1.14); the treatment of the disorders of the male seed caused by vāta, pitta, or kapha (1.15); ²¹ the treatment of the same types of disorders of the ārtava, which are called puṣpadoṣa here (1.16); ²² the treatment of the other types of disorders of semen and ārtava (1.17); ²³ general treatments for all types of disorders of semen and ārtava (1.18); four different opinions on the duration of the fertile part of the menstrual cycle (1.19). ²⁴

 $A.s. \hat{S}a.1.20-22 = A.h. \hat{S}a.1.20cd-23ab.$

The chapter proceeds with the rules to be observed by a woman during the first three days of the cycle (1.23);²⁵ the behaviour prescribed for the fourth day (1.24);²⁶ intercourse should not take place during the first week of the menstrual cycle; 27 couples wanting a son should have intercourse on the even days of the fertile period, those wanting a daughter on the odd days; ²⁸ the desirable qualities of the offspring decrease with the advance of the fertile period ²⁹ (1.25); the male seed is said to prevail on even, the female procreational fluid on odd days; this rule does not apply when the menstrual period continues for more than three days; intercourse on the days mentioned as favourable to begetting a son or daughter may under such circumstances lead to the birth of a child with a mixture of male and female characteristics or with deficient limbs; intercourse on the eleventh or thirteenth day results in the birth of a napumsaka (1.26); the ritual ensuring the birth of a son should be performed by the upādhyāya 30 and the female partner should concentrate her thoughts on the type of son she wants to conceive 31 (1.27); the rules to be observed after the ritual by both partners; details concerning the way of mounting their couch; ³² the mantra to be pronounced ³³ (1.28); rules for the coitus (1.29);³⁴ circumstances unfavourable to impregnation; the male should not lie under the female, for this would lead to the conception of a son or daughter with behavioural characteristics of the opposite sex; a bent position (nyubja) would make vāta strong, thus exerting pressure on the generative organs; kapha moves downwards, thus occluding the uterus, when the woman lies on her right side; when she lies on her left side, pitta will do so and lead to vidāha of the procreational fluid; 35 therefore the woman should lie down, which ensures that the dosas remain in their seats³⁶ (1.30); reference is made to a series of opinions on the days suitable to the purnsavana ritual $(1.31)^{37}$

The description of the puinsavana differs from that found in the *Hṛdaya*; the drinking of milk in which has been placed a male figure of gold, silver or iron is not mentioned; ³⁸ the opinion that human effort (puruṣakāra) may overcome daiva ³⁹ is not explicitly expressed; the number of herbs that may be employed is larger; the sniffing at a warm paste of śāli rice and putting some of it in one of the nostrils, while standing on the threshold of the house, is added ⁴⁰ (1.32–33).

The chapter continues with measures making sure that the pregnancy is maintained (prajāsthāpana) (1.34);⁴¹ the care to be given to the pregnant woman by her servants and husband;⁴² a rule for intercourse during pregnancy (1.35); factors influencing the colour of the child's skin are: the characteristics of the male seed, the mother's diet, the

2 Śārīrasthāna

country and family of the parents (1.36), and the predominant mahābhūtas (1.37),⁴³ the sattva of the child is determined by the sattvas of its parents, the sounds heard by the mother, and the karman of the child (1.38);⁴⁴ factors leading to a sustained stability of the ārtava (during the fertile period of the cycle) (1.39); impregnation will take place when both partners are well prepared (1.40); purpsavana will be successful in the absence of contrary daiva and an unsuitable time, and should be performed before signs of pregnancy become visible (1.41);⁴⁵ thus sons with desirable characteristics will be born (1.42–43); the seed (śukra) that flows out of the female organs during intercourse will not contribute to conception (1.44).

Chapter two (garbhāvakrānti), which corresponds to part of chapter one of the Śārīrasthana of the Hudaya, 46 is concerned with the process of conception, i.e., the union of semen and artava and the entry of the jīva (2.2); 47 the product of fertilization divides and assumes a particular form; it develops into a male when semen, into a female when ārtava predominates; a napumsaka will be born when semen and ārtava are in balance; vāta may split the product of fertilization into two or more parts, thus giving rise to twins or another type of multiple birth; morbid changes of semen and artava lead to abnormalities in the embryo (2.3);⁴⁸ the early and the later developing signs of pregnancy (2.4); ⁴⁹ the menses disappear during pregnancy because the rajas-transporting channels are obstructed by the foetus; the accumulating rajas develops into the apara, 50 or, according to others, into the jarāyu; due to this obstruction of rakta (= rajas), the romarā ii becomes visible (2.5); part of the asri (= rakta) goes upwards, thus leading to swelling of the cheeks and breasts, and to a dark colour of lips and nipples (cūcuka); another part, coloured (white) by kapha, goes to the breasts and turns into milk, 51 replenished after parturition by the juice deriving from the mother's food (2.6): the development of the child during the first three months of pregnancy (2.7);⁵² the mental and bodily characteristics of a male, female or napumsaka become manifest; napumsakas may possess all grades of mixed characteristics (2.8); those typical of a napumsaka with mainly female traits are enumerated, those of the opposite type can then be deduced (2.9); 3 sensations (vedanā) arise in the foetus; it begins to move (spandate) and to desire for the objects of the five senses (2.10); the heart of the foetus is connected with that of the mother by rasa-carrying vessels (dhamanī); this is the cause of the appearance of the longings (śraddhā) in the mother, who is therefore called dauhrdinī; 54 others assert that these longings appear in the fourth month (2.11); the longings should be respected; otherwise, vata gets excited and causes annihilation of the foetus or malformations;⁵⁵ gratification will result in the birth of a strong, long-lived son (2. 12); the development of the foetus during the fourth to seventh months (2.13);⁵⁶ the signs of instability during the eighth month; the problems during this period are due to the variability of the distribution of ojas over the bodies of mother and child (2.14);⁵⁷ others hold that the foetus may die in this month, not due to the instability of the ojas, but on account of the demonic influences of the Nairrtas (nairrtabhāgatva); these beings should be soothed by appropriate types of bali; 58 after expiry of the eighth month until a full yearhas elapsed, a woman may give birth (prasavakāla); delivery taking place later will result in an abnormal child ⁵⁹ (2.15); the position of the foetus within the womb.

dependent on its sex; 60 the rhythm of sleeping and being awake of the child depends on that of the mother; 61 the child in the womb is completely dependent (paratantravrtti) and lives upon the upasneha and upasveda produced in the uterus 62 (2.16); the major and minor parts of the foetus become gradually visible; the child's nutrition takes place through the umbilical cord, attached to the placenta (aparā), which is connected to the mother's heart; the juice derived from the mother's food is carried by the dhamanīs from her heart to the placenta, and thence to the child's navel; it is digested in the child's pakvāśaya and nourishes, being rich in prasāda, its bodily constituents; 63 the upasneha is absorbed through the pores of the child's hairs (2.17); the reason for the non-production of urine and faeces in the foetus; ⁶⁴ the position in which a child is normally born (2.18); 65 signs indicating that the pregnancy will result in the birth of a boy, girl or klība (= napumsaka) (2.19); 66 when vāta desiccates the vessels transporting rasa, the child may suffer from a vata disease or show defective limbs; such a foetus may remain in the womb for several years (2.20); ⁶⁷ factors resulting in the birth of children liable to show abnormal types of sexual behaviour and functioning; the types described are called dviretas (2.21), 68 vātendriya (2.22), 69 samskāravāhya (2.23), 70 āsekya (2. 24),⁷¹ vakradhva ja (2.25),⁷² saugandhika (2.26),⁷³ īrsyārati (2.27),⁷⁴ and vātasandaka (2.28); 75 disorders of the child in the womb will affect the same body parts as those affected in the mother (2.29); ⁷⁶ the causes of sterility (vandhyātva) and a disorder leading to repeated stillbirth (pūtipra jātva) (2.30); 77 the origin of a pseudo-female called vārttā or strīvyāpad; these three disorders arise when the germ (bīja) of the mother or part of it, which is transmitted to the child, is corrupted (2.31); 78 when the father is affected in the same way, three corresponding disorders may manifest themselves, resulting in the birth of an infertile son (vandhya), one who will beget stillborn children, or one whose children will be pseudo-males (trnamukhin) (2.32);⁷⁹ disorders of those parts which have their origin in satmya, rasa and sattva have thus been explained; 80 a child will develop disorders of those body parts which were already affected (upatapti) in a rudimentary form in the bīja or part of it; the same disorders do not occur secondarily (by anutāpa) (2.33); an expectant mother, repeatedly indulging in things that provoke one or more of the dosas, will get a child prone to disorders caused by that dosa or those dosas⁸¹ (2.34); affections of the child's eyes associated with the influence of tejas (fire); when this element does not reach the region of the eyes, the child will be born blind (iātvandhatva); when tejas is associated with one of the dosas or blood, the eyes will have a particular colour (2.35);82 things to be avoided by a pregnant woman (2. 36); 83 things which are prohibited in order to avoid provoking malevolent beings and deities; particular types of behaviour resulting in specific characteristics or disorders of the child are enumerated (2.37); 84 general rules for the medical treatment of pregnant women (2.38-40);85 an explanation for the fact that a child in the womb does not cry $(2.41)^{.86}$

Chapter three (garbhopakaraṇīya), which corresponds to part of chapter one of the Śārīrasthāna of the *Hṛdaya*, discusses the following subjects: dietary and other rules for a pregnant woman during the first month (3.2) and second to seventh months;⁸⁷ women say that vidāha arises in the mother during the seventh month, caused by the appearance

of the hair of the head in the foetus: this view is rejected by Atreya, who says that, due to the pressure of the foetus, the dosas reach the region of the mother's heart and cause vidāha, which, in its turn, results in itching (kandū) and, later, the appearance of striae (kikkisa)88 (3.3); the treatment of itching and skin disorders caused by the striae (3. 4);89 the diet during the eighth month; Khandakāpya disagrees with the rule, asserting that the articles of diet mentioned may lead to paingaly ain the child; Atreya defends the rule regarding diet, saying that the advantages prevail on this risk (3.5); 90 clysters which are useful during the eighth month (3.6); 91 these clysters should be applied in a bent position (nyubja) (3.7); the diet up to the time of delivery according to Dhanvantari (3.8);⁹² useful measures from the ninth month onwards (3.9);⁹³ prescriptions for the daily bath (3.10); the construction of the maternity home (sūtikāgāra) (3.11);⁹⁴ rules for its entry (3.12); 95 signs indicating the approach of delivery (3.13); 96 the management of this stage by experienced women (3.14); 97 additional measures to be taken (3.15); 98 the spontaneous turning (parivartana) of the foetus and the measures necessary when this fails to occur (3.16); 99 others advise the woman to pound the grain with which a mortar has been filled; this method is rejected; 100 the reasons for this rejection are given (3.17); 101 the parturient woman should lie down now; an experienced woman sitting at her feet should put oil on her yoni, press her buttocks with her feet, and urge her to push gently (3.18); 102 at the same time, another woman should mutter two mantras in her left ear; 103 the second mantra refers to Soma, Citrabhānu, and the horse Uccaihśravas ¹⁰⁴ (3.19–23); the management of the expulsion of the placenta (3.24-25); ¹⁰⁵ the treatment of protracted labour (garbhasanga) (3.26); ¹⁰⁶ the management of retention of the placenta (23.27-28); 107 other measures useful in this condition (3.29-33); 108 the symptoms and treatment of makkalla (3.34-35); 109 the treatment of a prolapsed uterus (yonibhramśa) (3.36); the treatment during the first few days after delivery (3.37-38); ¹¹⁰ the treatment in the later stages of the lying-in period (3.39); the rules should be observed very carefully because diseases occurring in the puerperium are difficult to cure or incurable; 111 the restrictions valid for the puerperium end after six weeks; the new mother is then called vigatasūtikā; others hold that the period is longer and continues until menstruation sets in again (3.40-41). 112

Chapter four (garbhavyāpad), corresponding to the chapter of the same title (Śā.2) of the *Hrdaya*, discusses the following subjects: the treatment of bleeding, accompanied by piercing pain, during pregnancy (4.2–6); ¹¹³ the treatment of piercing pain without loss of blood ¹¹⁴ (4.7); bleeding during the first three months usually results in abortion (4.8); ¹¹⁵ untimely birth may occur in the later months too when the blood is accompanied by āma, ¹¹⁶ because protective measures for the foetus and measures against āma are contradictory (4.9); therapeutic measures to be tried nevertheless (4.10); ¹¹⁷ the treatment of abortion (āmagarbhapāta) (4.11) ¹¹⁸ and incomplete abortion (āmagarbha-śeṣa) (4.12); the processes leading to the disorders of pregnancy called upaviṣṭaka and upaśuṣkaka (4.13); ¹¹⁹ general descriptions of upaviṣṭaka and upaśuṣkaka; the latter is also called nāgodara (4.14); ¹²⁰ in both conditions, the foetus grows very slowly; the child will be born at last, but after a very long pregnancy (4.15); the symptoms in upaviṣṭaka and upaśuṣkaka pregnancies caused by vāta (4.16), pitta (4.17) and kapha (4.

18); 121 the general treatment of upavistaka and upaśuskaka (4.19); 122 the treatment of their dosic varieties (4.20-21); the induction of abortion in case the foetus does not grow (4.22); the treatment of the disorder called līnagarbha; ¹²³ the general treatment of udavarta and vibandha in pregnant women (4.23); 124 their treatment in the eighth month, which is urgent, because of the danger of premature birth (4.24-25); 125 the processes leading to abortion (4.26); the symptoms arising when the foetus dies within the womb (rnrtagarbhā) (4.27); 126 the general features of mūdhagarbha; its innumerable varieties (4.28); the position of the foetus may change in an upward, oblique or downward direction; eight varieties are known, ¹²⁷ to be described both here and later (4.29); cases refractory to treatment (4.30); 128 in general, a garbhaśalya (foetus stuck within the womb) is very dangerous and needs immediate treatment (4.31); cutting up of a foetus still alive would kill its mother (4.32); 129 therefore, one should try first treatment with mantras and drugs; 130 the foetus may get stuck in three ways: with its head, shoulders or buttocks (4.33); three different opinions on the treatment of mūdhagarbha are recorded: the treatment also employed in expulsion of the afterbirth (jarāyupātana), the employment of mantras, etc., found in the Atharvaveda, and the surgical removal of the foetus (4.34); surgical interventions are not difficult to perform, because one hand suffices to carry them out (4.35); these interventions are necessary in order to save the mother's life; the outcome is doubtful; the surgeon ought to ask for the king's permission, as in cases of operating patients with udara, asmarī, etc. ¹³¹ (4.36); the general procedure of manual extraction (4.37); ¹³² instructions for the manual correction of various malpositions and for extraction of the foetus (4.38); ¹³³ two malpositions that cannot be managed manually and need surgical intervention (4.39); ¹³⁴ the techniques of cutting up a foetus in various malpositions (4.40). 135

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A.s.Śā.4.41 = A.h.Śā.2.35.

A.s.Śā.4.42-50 = A.h.Śā.2.39-46.

The preparation and uses of balātaila are described (4.51).

A.s.Śā.4.52-59 = A.h.Śā.2.53-60
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Chapter five (angavibhāga) corresponds to part of the chapter of the same title (Śā.3) of the Śārīrasthāna of the *Hrdaya*.

The subjects dealt with are: the body, its six major parts, the minor parts (5.2); ¹³⁶ the body is composed of the mahābhūtas, which in their turn consist of the mahāguṇas, ¹³⁷ based in their turn on cetanā (5.3); the products of the mahābhūtas are of very numerous kinds (5.4); the relationships between the five mahābhūtas and the three guṇas; ¹³⁸ the main characteristics of the five mahābhūtas: apratighāta, calatva, auṣṇya, dravatā, kāthinya; each mahābhūta has its specific seat in one of the senses (5.5); ¹³⁹ bodily structures and functions connected with one of the mahābhūtas in particular (5.6); ¹⁴⁰ the parts of the body deriving from the mother (5.7) ¹⁴¹ and the father (5.8), ¹⁴² from the ātman (5.9), ¹⁴³ from sātmya (5.10), ¹⁴⁴ and from rasa (5.11); ¹⁴⁵ characteristics deriving from sattva (5.12), ¹⁴⁶ rajas (5.13), ¹⁴⁷ and tamas (5.14); ¹⁴⁸ a synonym of sattva is manas; rajas and tamas are afflictions (upaplava) of manas (5.15); the constituents of the body; the six layers of the skin arise from blood, in the same way as the coagulated layers on the surface of milk which is boiled: ¹⁴⁹ the pure part (prasā-

da) of blood arises from the prasada of the layers of the skin (5.16); a description of these layers, their names, and the diseases located in them (5.17); ¹⁵⁰ the seven layers of the skin according to another view (5.18); 151 the description of a kalā in general (5. 19); ¹⁵² descriptions of each of the seven kalās (5.20-24); ¹⁵³ the five senses (buddhīndriya), their objects and seats (adhisthana) (5.25); the five karmendriyas and their functions (5.26); the manas and its functions (5.27); the seven āśayas, and the additional eighth one in women; 154 the viscera (kosthāngāni): heart (hrdaya), liver (yakrt), spleen (plīhan), phupphusa, unduka, kidneys (vrkka), intestines (antra), etc.; 155 liver and spleen derive from the clear (accha) part of blood, ¹⁵⁶ when it is acted upon by the samāna and the bodily heat (dehosman); 157 the frothy part (phena) of blood gives rise to the phupphusa, 158 its waste matter (kitta) to the unduka; 159 the kidneys arise from the pure parts (prasada) of blood and fatty tissue, 160 the intestines from those of blood and muscular tissue; 161 the length of the intestines is three yama and a half in men, three yāma in women; 162 the kālīya is produced from a combination of blood and vāta; 163 the heart finds its origin in the pure parts of kapha and blood; 164 it has the form of a padmakośa, with its opening turned downwards and provided with holes (susira); 165 the cetana has its seat there, 166 together with all the bhavas associated with it; at its left are spleen and phupphusa, at its right liver and kloman ¹⁶⁷ (5.28); the sense organs arise from the pure parts of the channels (srotas) transporting kapha and blood and from the pure parts of the mahābhūtas; 168 the suklamandala of the eyes, which is of paternal origin, arises from the pure part of kapha, the krsnamandala, which is of maternal origin, from (the pure part of) blood; 169 the drstimandala combines these features of both (mandalas) (5.29); the five mandalas of the eye are the lashes (paksman), lids (vartman), suklamandala, krsnamandala, and dissti; 170 they are connected by four junctions (sandhi); two more junctions, at the outer (apanga) and inner corner of the eye (kanīna) make their total number into six; 171 the eye has six layers (patala); the two outermost layers consist of the eyelids; fire and water are predominant in the (first and) outermost layer (of the eye itself); the predominant elements of the second, third and fourth layers are, in due order, muscular tissue, fatty tissue and bony tissue; ¹⁷² the thickness (bahalatā) of the patalas amounts to one fifth of that of the drsti 173 (5.30); the twines binding bodily structures together (bandhanaguna) 174 consist of sirās, kandarās, fatty tissue and phlegm (kapha); as already mentioned, kapha is the most important substance that binds junctures together; the fire located in the eye can perform its function through its contact with the fire outside of the body, in the same way as a sharp instrument through its contact with a whetstone; damage will occur when the contact is excessive (atiyoga); this fire retains its fiery nature by the intensity of its power (vīryotkarsa), just like the fire of lightning (vaidyuta) and the vadavāmukha 175 do so amidst of the water; the tongue arises from the pure parts of muscular tissue, blood and kapha, 176 the testicles (vrsana) from those of muscular tissue, blood, kapha and fatty tissue ¹⁷⁷ (5.31): the ten prānāyatanas; ¹⁷⁸ the first seven of the series (head, frenum of the tongue, tbroat, heart, umbilical region, urinary bladder, ano-rectal region) are the major vulnerable areas (mahāmarman) (5.32); the kandarās are sixteen in number; two in each arm and leg, four in the neck, and four in the back (5.33); ¹⁷⁹ the jālas of muscles, sirās, snāyus and bones are sixteen in number; each wrist and ankle has one jala of each of the four

types (5.34); 180 the six kūrcas are found in the hands, the feet, the neck and the penis (5. 35); ¹⁸¹ four māmsarajjus are present along the vertebral column (5.36); ¹⁸² the sīvanīs are seven in number: five are present in the head, ¹⁸³ one belongs to the tongue, ¹⁸⁴ one to the penis ¹⁸⁵ (5.37); ¹⁸⁶ the clusters of bones (asthisamghāta) are fourteen in number: one cluster in each ankle (gulpha), knee (jānu), groin (variksana), wrist (manibandha). elbow (kūrpara), and armpit (kaksyā), one in the sacral region (trika), and one in the head (siras) (5.38); ¹⁸⁷ the sīmantas are connected with the clusters of bones, but there are five of them in the head, thus making a total of eighteen (5.39); 188 the number of bones is 360; 189 140 bones are present in the extremities, 190 120 bones in the trunk, and 100 in the part above (the trunk); each leg has five toe nails; ¹⁹¹ each toe possesses three bones; there are five metatarsal bones (pādaśalākā) 192 and one bone connecting them (śalākāpratibandhana); 193 two bones are present in each kūrca, 194 ankle (gulpha) 195 and lower leg, ¹⁹⁶ while heel (pārṣṇi), ¹⁹⁷ knee ¹⁹⁸ and thigh ¹⁹⁹ possess one bone; the same distribution is found in the arms (5.40); the ribs (parsuka)²⁰⁰ are twenty-four in number; 201 there are as many sthalakas and arbudas; 202 the back possesses thirty, 203 the anterior part of the chest eight bones; ²⁰⁴ the bhaga ²⁰⁵ and trika ²⁰⁶ have one bone each; each nitamba has one bone; 207 there are two aksakas, amsas and amsaphalakas 208 (5.41); one bone is present in each cheek (ganda), ear and temple; ²⁰⁹ there is one bone in the jatru²¹⁰ and one in the palate (tālu);²¹¹ the neck (grīvā) has thirteen,²¹² the trachea (kanthanādī) four bones; 213 there are two bones in the jaw (hanubandhana); 214 the teeth are thirty-two in number; 215 there are as many sockets (ulūkhala) of the teeth; 216 three bones are present in the nose, ²¹⁷ six in the skull ²¹⁸ (5.42); the bones belonging to the five groups called kapāla, rucaka, taruna, valaya, and nalaka; 219 fleshy parts of the body are attached to the bones by sirās and snāyus²²⁰ (5.43); the joints connecting bones are 210 in number; ²²¹ sixty-eight joints are present in the extremities, fifty-nine in the trunk, eighty-three in the part above (the trunk); each toe has three joints, apart from the first one, which has two; each ankle, knee and groin possesses one joint (5.44); three joints are present in the flat pelvic bones (katīkapāla), twenty-four in the vertebral column (prsthavamsa), an equal number in the sides of the chest (pārsva), eight in the anterior part of the chest (uras) (5.45); eight joints are present in the neck (grīvā), three in the kanthanādī, ²²² eighteen in the nādīs of heart, liver and kloman²²³ (these joints are attached to the kanthanādī),²²⁴ thirty-two in the roots of the teeth; one joint is present in kākala, nose and head respectively, two joints are present in the cheeks, ears, temples, eyelids, and jaws, two above the eyebrows, and five in the flat bones of the skull (5.46); ²²⁵ the eight kinds of joints and where they are found (5.47); ²²⁶ the junctures present in snāvus, muscles (peśī) and sirās are two thousand in number, but are of no practical importance in surgery (5.48);²²⁷ the number of snāyus is nine hundred;²²⁸ six hundred of them are found in the extremities, two hundred and thirty in the trunk, and seventy in the part above (the trunk); each toe possesses six snayus; each sole, kurca and ankle has ten snavus; their number is thirty in the lower leg, ten in the knee, forty in the thigh, and ten in the groin (5.49); ²²⁹ forty snāyus are present in the pelvic region (kati),²³⁰ twenty in the region of penis, testicles, bladder and intestines,²³¹ eighty in the back, ²³² sixty in the lateral parts of the chest (pārśva), ²³³ eighteen in the anterior part of the chest (uras), ²³⁴ four in the region of the clavicles (aksaka), and eight in the

shoulder regions (amsa) 235 (5.50); two snāyus are found in each manvā, avatu, 236 eve. half of the lips and half of the palate, ²³⁷ thirty in the neck, ²³⁸ three in the jatru, four in the jaw, five in the tongue, twelve in the upper and twelve in the lower gums, six in the (remaining part of the) head ²³⁹ (5.51); the snayus in the extremities and joints are pratanavant; big and round ones are called kandara; snayus with holes (susira) are found in bladder, āmāśaya, pakvāśaya and intestines; flat snāyus are present in the lateral parts of the chest, back, anterior part of the chest, and head (5.52); 240 a body, well provided with snavus, is like a properly built boat; these structures should therefore be protected; a physician acquainted with them is able to extract foreign bodies, even when hidden within the tissues (5.53);²⁴¹ the muscles (peśī) are five hundred in number;²⁴² four hundred are found in the extremities, sixty in the trunk, forty in the region above of the trunk; ²⁴³ three muscles are present in each toe, ten in the fore part of the foot (prapada), the sole and the ankle, 244 an equal number in the kūrca, twenty in the lower leg, five in the knee, and twenty in the thigh²⁴⁵ (5.54); one muscle is present in the penis, one in the raphe (sevanī), two are present in the testicles, ten in the buttocks, three, called valī, in the anal region, two in the bastisiras, four in the abdominal wall; ²⁴⁶ one muscle is found in the umbilical region, heart and āmāśaya, six muscles are present in liver, spleen and unduka; five muscles are present in the upper part of the back, 247 ten long ones in the sides of the chest,²⁴⁸ ten in the anterior part of the chest, and three in the region of shoulder and clavicle ²⁴⁹ (5.55); ten muscles are present in the neck, ²⁵⁰ eight in the cheeks, ²⁵¹ eight in the region of the jaw; one muscle is found in throat, ²⁵² kākala, tongue²⁵³ and head; ²⁵⁴ two muscles are present in the palate, forehead, ²⁵⁵ nose, lips, and ears²⁵⁶ (5.56); women possess twenty more muscles; ²⁵⁷ ten muscles, which develop during puberty, are found in the breasts, the other ten in the generative organs (yoni); two muscles are found internally (abhyantarāśrita), ²⁵⁸ two round (vrtta) ones in the (yoni)mukha, ²⁵⁹ three more in the garbhamārga, where the foetus stays; ²⁶⁰ the yoni possesses three whirls (avarta) in the form of a śankhanabhi; 261 the garbhaśayyā (uterus)²⁶² is found at the third avarta. ²⁶³ between pittaśaya and pakyaśaya: ²⁶⁴ it has three muscles, which conduct seed and artava 265 (5.57); the muscles, diverse as to form, cover the joints, bones, sirās and snāvas (5.58); ²⁶⁶ the openings of the minutest branches of sirās and dhamanīs are 2,900,956 in number (5,59); ²⁶⁷ the hairs of head, beard and body are equal in number; 268 they are nourished by the openings mentioned, which also convey sweat outwards, while carrying to the interior of the body the active constituents (vīrya) of ointments, plasters, etc., digested within the skin, as well as tactile sensations (5.60); the number of structures called srotas is countless; the distribution, etc., of the sirās, will be discussed in another chapter; the firm and perceptible bodily structures have now been dealt with (5.61); excess fluids in the body are mixed with the faeces; similar processes occur with regard to urine, blood and other dhātus; ²⁶⁹ excess fluid present in the whole body may accumulate in the outer part of the skin; fluid present within the skin may accumulate in wounds and sores as lasīkā; fluid associated with the bodily heat may appear as sweat; all these substances consist of water (5.62);²⁷⁰ the quantities of water, āhārasāra or rasa, blood, faeces, kapha, pitta, unne, vasā, medas, and bone marrow can be measured in añialis; the quantity of bone marrow is one añjali; the quantities of the other constituents increase with one añjali in

the reverse order; seed, brain tissue (mastişka) and o jas are present in a quantity of half an añjali; ²⁷¹ the rajas of women measures four, the breastmilk two añjali; the last two derive from the pure part of rasa (5.63); the mentioned quantities are those of a healthy (samadhātu) human being; the quantities present in states of decline or increase should be deduced from the signs present in those states; the same applies to constituents not enumerated, such as muscular tissue, the impurities of the ears, etc., vāyu, buddhi, smṛti, etc. (5.64); the opinion of the Dhanvantarīyas is referred to, who hold that the normal quantities of bodily constituents are not fixed, on account of the differences among individuals and the physiological variations of doṣas, dhātus and malas; determinable are only deviations from a state of health (5.65); ²⁷² all parts of the body are composed again of subtle structures; these are innumerable due to the minuteness of the atoms; vāta is the agent causing the conjunction (saṃyoga) and dis junction (vibhāga) of atoms (5.66); the bodily state may lead to bondage (bandha) or to final release (mokṣa) (5.67); knowledge of the parts of the body furthers the avoidance of anything unhealthy (5.68).

Chapter six (sirāvibhāga) corresponds to the second part of the angavibhāga chapter of the Hrdaya ($\hat{S}\bar{a}.3$), but is more elaborate.

The subjects are: the ten chief sirās (mūlasirā) which, coming from the heart, transport ojas; they divide several times into branches with a thickness of two angula, one angula, half an angula, a yava, and half a yava respectively, until their number amounts to seven hundred (6.2); ²⁷³ four hundred of them are found in the extremities; sixteen of these should not be used in phlebotomy; ²⁷⁴ 136 sirās are present in the trunk; thirtytwo of these should not be used in phlebotomy; 164 sirās are in the part above (the trunk); fifty of these should be spared in phlebotomy²⁷⁵ (6.3); one hundred sirās are present in each leg; the sirā called jālandharā and three internal ones should be avoided in bloodletting (6.4);²⁷⁶ the pelvic region (śroni) possesses thirty-two sirās; eight of these should be spared: two in each groin and two in each katīkataruna; 277 the sides of the chest have sixteen sirās; the two running upwards should be spared;²⁷⁸ twentyfour are present in the back; two sirās on each side of the backbone should be spared; ²⁷⁹ the abdomen has twenty-four sirās as well; four of them should not be cut: two above the penis and two on the sides of the romarajī; 280 forty sirās are found in the anterior part of the chest; fourteen are to be avoided in bloodletting: two in the cardiac region, two in each stanamula and stanarohita, one in each apastambha and apālāpa²⁸¹ (6.5); twenty-four sirās are present in the neck; 282 a group of four and a group of eight which are marmans, and two in the kṛkāṭikās and vidhuras, should be avoided, thus making a total of sixteen; 283 the region of the jaw possesses sixteen sirās; 284 two of them, in the region of the articulation, should be spared; ²⁸⁵ the tongue has sixteen sirās; ²⁸⁶ four of these should be spared: two which carry taste,²⁸⁷ and two which carry speech;²⁸⁸ twenty-four sirās are found in the nasal region; 289 two of these, which carry smell, 290 should not be touched, 291 as well as one in the palate; 292 fifty-six sirās are present in the eyes; six of these should not be touched by the knife: the two in each eye which are associated with the opening (unmesa) and closing (nimesa) of the eyes, and the one in each eye at the outer corner; 293 among the sixty sirās in the forehead four which run along the hair-line (keśāntānugata), the two in the āvartas and the one in the sthapanī are to be spared; ²⁹⁴ among the sixteen sirās in the ears the two which transport sound should not be cut; ²⁹⁵ the region of the temples also possesses sixteen sirās; ²⁹⁶ the two at the joints of the temple should be spared; ²⁹⁷ eight sirās should not be cut among the twelve present on the head: one in each of the two utksepas, one in each one of the (five) sīmantas, and one in the adhipati; 298 not to be touched by the knife are, moreover, those sirās which are very small, crooked, forming a tangled mass, knotty, or located near to joints (6.6): ²⁹⁹ one quarter of the total number of sirās, i.e., a number of 175, transport blood mixed with vata; equal numbers carry blood mixed with pitta, blood mixed with kapha, and pure blood; thus, the dosas support the body (6.7); 300 the characteristics of these four types of sirās and of the mixed types (6.8); 301 the twentyfour vessels called dhamani; similes illustrating their function; 302 the dhamanis surround the navel like the spokes of a wheel the nave; 303 the pranas have their particular seatin the umbilical region, ³⁰⁴ where the internal fire is located too (6.9); ten dhamanīs run upwards, ten downwards, and four obliquely (6.10);³⁰⁵ those running upwards, which depart from the heart, divide into thirty branches; vāta, pitta, kapha, blood and rasa are transported by two of these each; eight branches carry sound, form, taste and smell; two branches are connected with speaking, making inarticulate sounds (ghosa), sleeping, and waking up respectively; two branches transport tears; two branches carry milk in women and seed in men (6.11); 306 those running downwards, which are connected with the pakvāśaya, 307 also divide into thirty branches; ten of these transport, like those running upwards, vāta, etc.; two branches transport food, 308 two water, two urine; two branches carry semen and two release it; four similar vessels carry and release artaya in women; two branches, connected with the large bowel, help to expel faeces; the remaining eight transport sweat (6.12);309 the branches which run obliquely divide many times, as already described (6.13);³¹⁰ the channels (srotas) are nine in number in males: the ears, eyes, nostrils, mouth, anus and urethra; females have three additional ones: the breasts and the vagina; thirteen more groups of channels in the interior of the body, which are seats of life (iīvitāyatana), transport prāna, water, food, dhātus, and malas (6.14);³¹¹ heart and mahāsrotas ³¹² are the roots of the prāṇacarrying channels; the factors leading to corruption of these channels; signs resulting from this corruption; its treatment is like that of śvāsa (6.15); 313 palate and kloman are the roots of the water-carrying channels; 314 the causes and signs of their corruption, to be treated like trsnā (6.16); āmāśaya and the left side of the chest are the roots of the food-carrying channels; ³¹⁵ everything concerning their corruption is to be found in the mātrāśitīya chapter $(S\bar{u}.11)^{316}(6.17)$; ³¹⁷ the roots of the rasa-carrying channels are the heart and the ten dhamanīs; 318 the roots of the blood-carrying channels are liver and spleen, ³¹⁹ those of the channels carrying muscular tissue are the snāvas and the skin, ³²⁰ those of the channels carrying fatty tissue (medas) are the kidneys and the muscles; 321 the roots of the channels carrying bony tissue consist of the buttocks (jaghana) and the fatty tissue (medas), 322 those of the channels carrying bone marrow consist of the joints (parvan) and bones;³²³ the roots of the channels carrying seed (sukra) are the breasts, the testicles and the bone marrow, 324 those of the channels carrying urine are the bladder and the groins (vanksana), 325 those of the channels carrying faeces are the pakvāśaya and large bowel (sthūlāntra), ³²⁶ those of the channels carrying perspiration consist of fatty tissue and the pores of the hairs; 327 all these channels may become corrupted by unhealthy dietary habits and patterns of behaviour; ³²⁸ the symptoms arising are those of decrease and increase, discussed, together with therapeutic measures, in the dosādivi j \bar{n} ān $\bar{1}$ ya chapter ($S\bar{u}$.19)³²⁹ (6.18); the disorders arising when channels are pierced; their dangerous nature compels the physician to treat patients only after warning them about the risks; after extraction of a foreign body that has pierced a channel, the treatment required is the same as that of a fresh wound (6.19); 330 sirās and dhamanīs are particular types of channels; others hold that these three form different structures; they have in common that they are located near to each other, perform similar, though diverse functions, and are of a subtle nature (6.20); ³³¹ others again are of the opinion that srotas, sirā, dhamanī, rasavāhinī, nādī, path, ayana, mārga, śarīracchidra, samvrtāsarnvrta, sthāna, āśaya, ksaya and niketa are names for visible and unvisible structures consisting of spaces (avakāśa) within the bodily constituents (dhātu) (6.21); 332 these spaces, when excited, make the bodily elements, whether fixed or in movement, excited; excited bodily elements bring about excitation of the channels; (excited) channels (cause excitation of) other channels, (excited) bodily elements (excitation of other) bodily elements; corruption of all these (constituents) is brought about by corrupted dosas; ³³³ their corruption usually results from a disorder of the fire (agnidosa); for this reason, the life span, health, strength, nutritional state (upacaya), colour of the skin, and (the condition of) ojas, are based on this (fire); associated (pratibaddha) with this (digestive fire) are rañjaka (pitta), etc., the fires of the (mahā)bhūtas, and the fires of the bodily elements; food, digested by that (digestive fire), leads to immortality; when remaining undigested, it becomes poison (6.22); 334 the kind of pitta called pācaka is identical with the (digestive) fire, as has been stated already; 335 other authorities claim that the inner heat (antarūsman), generated by the concerted action (samnipāta) of dosas, dhātus and malas, constitutes the fire, with a seat and action as taught (6.23); 336 the internal fire cooks the mass of food, which is brought to the kostha by the prana, divided into smaller parts by fluids, and made soft by fatty substances; this fire is kindled by the samāna (6.24); 337 the food, which contains all the tastes at first, becomes, when being digested, sweet, excites kapha, and becomes frothy; then, partially digested (vidagdha) and having become sour, it moves on from the āmāśaya and excites pitta; having reached the pakvāśaya and become pungent, it excites vāta (6.25); 338 subsequently, the fires of the five mahābhūtas cook those parts of the food, which belong to each of them; after completion of this process, these parts nourish those constituents of the body which derive from each of the mahābhûtas (6.26); 339 after completion of the digestive process, the food consists of a pure part (sara), called rasa, and an impure part (mala), called kitta; 340 the channels transport rasa and kitta, not yet separated from each other (avicchinnasaıntāna), to the bodily elements, thus replenishing them; each type of channel carries the substance proper to it, i.e., the rasa-transporting channels bring rasa to the rasadhātu; the part that remains nourishes the blood; then, the muscular tissues are replenished by their own channels, etc.; 341 thus, the dhātus maintain their proper measure, dependent on age and bodily build (6.27); the rasa derived from the food, dispersed by the vyāna, and cooked by the fires of the bodily elements, loses its characteristics (svātmabhāvavicyuti), thus changing into blood, etc.; in this way, it

bestows ūrias on the body and nourishes the bodily elements and impurities (6.28); the clear part of the kitta of the food becomes urine, the dense part becomes faeces; the pure part of rasa becomes blood, the impure part phlegm and lasīkā; the pure part of blood changes into muscular tissue, kandarās and sirās, the impure part into bile; the pure part of muscular tissue changes into medas, skin and vasā, the impure part into the impurities of ears, eyes, nose, mouth, pores of the skin, and generative organs; the pure part of fatty tissue (medas) changes into bones, snayus and joints, the impure part into sweat; the pure part of bony tissue changes into bone marrow, the impure part into the hairs of head and body and the nails; the pure part of bone marrow changes into seed, the impure part into the secretions from the eyes and the fatty substance (sneha) of the layers of the skin; the pure part of seed changes into ojas; because of its great purity, seed does not contain impure matter; some authorities assert that seed, on account of this purity, is not transformed; others again hold that the pure part of seed develops into an embryo (6.29);³⁴² vāta distributes all the products derived from the food throughout the body (6.30); another theory claims that the rasa derived from the food nourishes directly each of the bodily elements, without the process of transformation of each element into the next one of the series (6.31); 343 the four types of digestive fire are: sama, visama, tīksna and manda; increase of a tīksna fire leads to the type called atyagni; the characteristic features of a sluggish (manda) fire and the disorders it produces; the importance of maintaining a proper digestive fire: 344 the means to achieve this aim are discussed in the chapter called dosopakramanīya (Sū.21) and that on the treatment of grahanīroga (6.32).

 $A.s. \hat{S}\bar{a}.6.33-36 = A.h. \hat{S}\bar{a}.3.43-46.$

 $A.s. \hat{S}a.6.37 = A.h. \hat{S}a.3.65cd-66ab.$

 $A.s. \hat{S}\bar{a}.6.38 = A.h. \hat{S}\bar{a}.3.67.$

 $A.s. \hat{S}a.6.39 = A.h. \hat{S}a.3.63cd-64ab.$

 $A.s. \hat{S}\bar{a}.6.40 = A.h. \hat{S}\bar{a}.3.73.$

The last verse (6.41) stresses again the importance of protecting one's bodily fire.

Chapter seven (marmavibhāga), on the vulnerable spots called marman, corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Śā.4) of the *Hṛdaya*.

The subjects discussed are: the number of marmans is 107; forty-four are found in the extremities, twenty-six in the trunk, thirty-seven in the part above (the trunk) (7.2); descriptions of the marmans in the leg up to the knee and the disorders resulting from injuries to them: the talahṛdaya, 345 kṣipra, 346 kūrca, 347 kūrcaśiras, 348 gulpha, 349 indrabasti, 350 and jānu³⁵¹ (knee) (7.3); the marmans in the thigh: the āṇi, 352 urvī, 353 lohitākṣa, 354 and viṭapa; 355 the marmans in the arms correspond to those of the legs; the gulpha corresponds to the maṇibandha (wrist), the jānu to the kūrpara (elbow), the viṭapa to the kakṣādhara, 356 in jury to these leads to kuṇitā (crookedness) 357 (7.4); the marmans of the trunk: guda (ano-rectal region), 358 basti (urinary bladder), 359 nābhi (navel) 360 (7.5), hṛdaya (heart), 361 two stanamūlas, 362 two stanarohitas, 363 two apastambhas, 364 two apālāpas 365 (7.6), 366 two kaṭīkataruṇas, 367 two kukundaras, 368 two nitambas 369 (buttocks), two pārśvasandhis 370 (7.7), two bṛhatīs, 371 two aṃsaphalakas, 372 two aṃsas 373 (7.8); 374 the marmans above the trunk: four dhamanīs 375

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in the neck: two called nīlā and two called manyā, 376 the four sirāmātrkās, 377 two kṛkāṭikās, 378 two vidhuras, 379 two phanas, 380 two apāngas, 381 two śankhas, 382 two āvartas 383 (7.9), two utksepas, 384 the sthapanī, 385 five sīmantas, 386 four śrngātakas, 387 and the adhipati³⁸⁸ (7.10); the general characteristics of injury to a marman (7.11);³⁸⁹ the disorders arising (7.12); marmans are called thus because (injury to them) leads to death (maranakāritva); marmans are aggregates (samnipāta) of muscular tissue, sirās, snāvas, bones and joints; 390 in jury results in damage (ābādha) to the prānas; the marmans are classified according to the type of structure prevailing (7.13); ³⁹¹ the eleven māinsamarmans, ³⁹² forty-one sirāmarmans, ³⁹³ twenty-seven snāvamarmans, ³⁹⁴ eight asthimarmans, ³⁹⁵ and twenty sandhimarmans ³⁹⁶ (7.14); the nineteen marmans of the sadyahprānahara group; in jury to them leads to death within a week (7.15); 397 the thirty-three marmans of the kālāntaraprānahara group; injury will have its effects within half a lunar month; ³⁹⁸ injury to a ksipra may quickly be fatal (7.16); the three marmans of the viśalyaghna group: 399 someone with an injury to one of these will remain alive as long as air does not escape from the wound (7.17);⁴⁰⁰ the forty-four marmans of the vaikalyakara group; in jury is sometimes fatal (7.18);401 the eight marmans of the rujākara group (7.19);402 some authorities assert that injuries which affect all five structures forming part of a marman are sadyahprānahara, while those affecting four of them are kālāntaraprānahara, etc. (7.20); 403 others again do not accept the usual classifications of the marinans, insisting that syabhāya is the only determining factor with regard to the effects of an injury; in favour of this view they point to the fact that amputation of (part of) a limb, in spite of the presence of many marinans in it, is not fatal (7.21); still others explain this fact by arguing that, after amputation of a hand or foot, the sirās contract, thus leading to an only slight loss of blood and the preservation of life; in jury to a marman, however, leads to much loss of blood, resulting in disorders of vata, and, finally, death; 404 therefore, when a marman in a particular limb is injured, this limb should be amputated at the nearest (proximal) joint; 405 serious injury to a marman of a particular type necessitates placing this marinan in a higher group; the reverse holds good in slight injuries (7.22); 406 marmans are also divided into five groups by another criterion, namely their dimensions; urvī, kūrcasiras, vitapa and kaksādhara measure one angula, 407 gulpha, manibandha and stanamūla two angula, jānu and kūrpara three angula; kūrca, guda, basti, nābhi, hrdaya, the nīlās, manyās and mātrkās, the sīmantas and śrigātakas are as large as the palm of the hand; the remaining ones have the extent of an anguladala; 408 other authorities hold that the ksipras have the size of a grain of vrīhi rice, the stanarohitas and utksepas the size of a kalāva, and others the size of a sesamum grain 409 (7.23).

The last part of the chapter, in verse, deals with the importance of protecting one's āyus, because in juries to the marmans are life-threatening (7.24–25), the disorders following upon injury to a marman (7.26–27), the danger of excessive loss of blood (7.28–29), and the duty of a physician to treat people with such in juries, after warning them for the risks involved (7.30).

Chapter eight (prakṛtibhedīya), corresponding to part of the angavibhāga chapter (Śā.3) of the *Hṛdaya*, deals with: the seven types of prakṛti (constitution), dominated

by one, a combination of two, or all three dosas; the dosa or dosas present in excess during pregnancy, due to the diet and behaviour of the mother, and due to the nature of male seed and artava, determine one's constitution from birth until death; the action of the dosa(s) on one's constitution is compared to that of poison in poisonous animals (8.2); 410 the effects of the constitution on one's physiology are explained; the dosa characterizing the constitutional make-up of a person does not hurt him or her, and antagonistic articles, behaviours, etc., are well tolerated; morbid changes of a dosa, however, will affect a foetus and kill or deform it (8.3);⁴¹¹ others declare that dosas are prākrta or vaikrta; prākrtadosas, present from birth onwards, determine the seven types of constitution, sustain the body, and do not change during life; dosas subject to changes are called vailuta (8.4); these vaikrtadosas mix with the prakrtadosas, thus corrupting them; similarly, the para type of ojas, staying in the heart and measuring eight drops (bindu), which constitutes the substrate (adbara) of the ojas deriving from the rasa and measuring a prasta, will be corrupted (8.5); descriptions, first in prose, then in verse, of the constitutions dominated by vata (8.6-8), 412 pitta (8.9-11), 413 and kapha (8.12-14); 414 a samsargaprakrti is dominated by two desas; in someone with a samadosaprakrti the dosas are equally well developed; 415 persons with one of the first three constitutions described, and in particular those with a constitution dominated by two dosas, are considered to be essentially perpetually sick (nityātura), 416 but are called healthy in every-day language, just like hunger and thirst are normal phenomena; they are in need of the treatments outlined in the dosopakramarūya chapter (Sū.21); those with a balanced constitution should take into consideration the rules regarding sātmya during the various seasons (8.15); there are also seven types of prakrti which are distinguished according to the degree of dominance of sattva, etc.; sauca, etc., are their characteristics (8.16);417 seven more types of prakrti may be distinguished in relation to jati, 418 kula (family lineage), 419 deśa (type of country inhabited), kāla, vayas (age), bala (strength), and ātmasamśraya (individual characteristics) (8.17); the types according to sattva, etc., which affect both mind and body, are, due to their gradations (taratamayoga), innumerable (8.18); they develop after birth in relation to impressions from activities (abhyāsavāsanā), and are dispositions (anūka), called after deities, pretas, animals, etc. (8.19); 420 the stages of the human life cycle: bāla, madhya, vrddha; the stage called bāla lasts sixteen years; madhya lasts from sixteen to sixty years; 421 after the age of sixty, vrddha begins; hāla is subdivided into stanyavrtti (living on breastmilk), āhāravrtti (living on solid food) and ubhayavrtti (living on both kinds of food); 422 the characteristics of bala; 423 kapha predominates in this stage⁴²⁴ (8.20); madhya is subdivided into yauvana, sampūrnatva and aparihāni; 425 pitta predominates during the madhya stage; 426 its general characteristics; 427 yauvana lasts until the age of thirty; 428 the characteristics of sampūrnatva, lasting up to forty years; 429 aparihāni is not characterized 430 (8.21); the characteristics of yrddhi, with vata as the prevailing dosa (8.22); others divide the life cycle into ten periods of ten years; each of these decads is characterized by the loss of a particular feature; these features consist of: balya (childhood), vrddhi (growth), prabhā, medhā, tvac, śukra, keenness of eyesight, sharpness of hearing, manas (mental faculties), and all the faculties of the senses⁴³¹ (8.23); the maximum

life span is one hundred years in this (Kali) age; some people, due to their karman, approach this age or live even longer; generally, the life span depends on one's prakrti (8.24);⁴³² the gradual reduction of the span of life in the course of the ages of the world (8.25); the three types of strength (bala): sahaja, kālakrta and vuktikrta; the sahaja type, which is prākrta, depends on one's sattva and body type; the kālakrta strength is associated with season and age; the yuktikrta type derives from one's diet, behaviour, and use of ūrjaskara preparations (8.26); 433 there are eight types of sāra: tvak-, rakta-, māmsa-, medah-, asthi-, majja-, śukra-, and sattvasāra; their excellence increases in the mentioned order; the degree of strength can be deduced from the type of sāra (8.27); 434 the characteristics of someone possessing all the eight sāras; the opposite type; the intermediate type (8.28);⁴³⁵ the measurements in angulas of many parts of the body: first and second toes are two angula long; 436 the three other toes are successively one fifth shorter; 437 prapada, 438 pādatala 439 and pārsni 440 are each four angula long, but respectively six, five and four angula broad; the length and circumference of the foot are fourteen angula; 441 the circumference of the ankle and the middle part of the lower leg is also fourteen angula; 442 the height of the foot is four angula; 443 the lengths of lower leg and thigh are eighteen angula; 444 the knee is four angula long; 445 the circumference of the thigh is thirty angula 446 (8.29); testicles and penis are six angula long; their circumferences are eight, respectively five angula; 447 the breadth of the pelvic region (kati) is sixteen angula, 448 its circumference fifty angula; 449 the bastisiras measures twelve angula; 450 the udara measures twelve angula; 451 the sides of the chest (pārśva) are ten angula broad and twelve long; 452 the trika is twelve angula high; 453 the back is eighteen angula in height; 454 the space between the nipples (stanantara) measures twelve angula;455 the areola around the nipples (stanaparyanta) extends over two angula; 456 the anterior part of the chest is twenty-four angula broad and twelve in length; 457 the heart measures two angula; 458 the skandhas and kaksās measure eight angula each; 459 the amsas measure six angula: 460 the upper arm (prabāhu) measures sixteen, the lower arm (prapāni) fifteen. the hand (pāṇi) twelve angula; 461 the middle finger (madhyamāngula) is five angula long, the index (pradeśinī) and ring finger (anāmikā) are half an angula shorter; little finger (kanisthikā) and thumb (angustha) measure three angula and a half: 462 the neck is four angula long, while its circumference is twenty-two angula; 463 the face (ānana) is twelve angula long, while its circumference is twenty-four angula⁴⁶⁴ (8.30); the mouth (āsya) measures five angula; 465 chin (cibuka), lip, nose, interpupillary region (drstyantara), ear and forehead measure four angula each; 466 the frontier between the wings of the nose (nāsāputamaryādā) 467 is one third of an angula broad; 468 the eye is two angula deep (ayata) and as broad as the ball (udara) of the thumb: 469 the black part measures one third of the white part; 470 the drsti measures one ninth of the black part⁴⁷¹ and is as large as the half of a lentil; ⁴⁷² the head is six angula high, while its circumference is thirty-two angula: 473 the total length of the human body is eighty-four angula; 474 the proportions are as they should be (sama) when length and breadth are equal (āyāmavistārasama);⁴⁷⁵ measures which are larger are desirable, smaller measures undesirable; 476 the same criteria are applicable to other general features (8.31);⁴⁷⁷ desirable bodily characteristics (8.32).⁴⁷⁸

 $A.s. \le \bar{a}.8.33 - 34 = A.h. \le \bar{a}.3.115 - 116.$ $A.s. \le \bar{a}.8.35 - 36 = A.h. \le \bar{a}.3.119 - 120.$

Chapter nine (vikṛtivijñāniya) corresponds to part of the chapter of the same title ($\hat{S}\bar{a}.5$) of the H_rdaya .

The subjects discussed are: the definition of a rista as a change of one own's natural state (svabhāvaviparyāsa) that occurs without any apparent reason (akasmāt) (9.2); the natural colours of the skin: gaura, śyāma, kṛṣṇa, gauraśyāma and kṛṣṇaśyāma; 479 subdivisions are padmagaura, etc.; 480 abnormal colours are nīlasyāma, tāmra, hāridra, sukla, etc.; ⁴⁸¹ the occurrence of both natural and unnatural colours points to approaching death; 482 changes in the features mentioned in the prakrtibhedīya chapter ($\hat{Sa}.8$) and in the chapters on the dosas (Sū. 19-20) have the same meaning 483 (9.3); the chāvā is of five types: related to ākāśa, air, fire, water and earth; their characteristics: 484 the chaya related to air is productive of affiictions and death, the other types lead to a happy life⁴⁸⁵ (9.4); the seven colours of prabhā; auspicious and inauspicious characteristics of prabhā (9.5); 486 the distinctive characters of varna, chāyā and prabhā (9.6); 487 death will approach when one's reflection (praticchāyāmayī kumārikā) will not be visible in someone's pupil (9.7);⁴⁸⁸ signs foreboding death (rista) relating to one's praticchāyā (reflection); ⁴⁸⁹ ristas relating to the head, ⁴⁹⁰ eyes, ⁴⁹¹ eyelids, ⁴⁹² nose ⁴⁹³ (9.8); ristas relating to the lips, ⁴⁹⁴ teeth, ⁴⁹⁵ tongue, ⁴⁹⁶ some parts of the head, the head, ⁴⁹⁷ jaw, ⁴⁹⁸ generative organs, ⁴⁹⁹ pores of the hairs, ⁵⁰⁰ the limbs in general ⁵⁰¹ (9.9), the voice, respiration, 502 etc. 503 (9.10).

The chapter ends with ristas in verse:

 $A.s. \hat{5}\bar{a}. 9.11-15 = A.h. \hat{5}\bar{a}. 5.14cd-19ab.$

A.s. \hat{S} ā.9.16 = A.h. \hat{S} ā.5.20cd-21ab.

 $A.s. \hat{S}\bar{a}.9.17-18 = A.h. \hat{S}\bar{a}.5.28-29.$

A.s. \hat{s} a.9.19–20 = A.h. \hat{s} a.5.39cd–41ab.

 $A.s. \hat{s}a.9.21 = A.h. \hat{s}a.5.121cd-122ab.$

 $A.s. \hat{s}a.9.22 = A.h. \hat{s}a.5.27$

The last verse of the chapter (9.23) describes a rista relating to an abnormal chāvā.

Chapter ten (vikṛtehāvijñānīya) corresponds to part of the vikṛtivijñānīya chapter (Śā.5) of the *Hrdaya*

 $A.s. \hat{s}\bar{a}. 10.2 - 10 = A.h. \hat{s}\bar{a}. 5.30 - 38ab.$

A.s.Śā.10.11 is added.

 $A.s. \hat{S}a. 10.12-28 = A.h. \hat{S}a. 5.53cd-70ab.$

 $A.s. \le \bar{a}.10.29 - 30 = A.h. \le \bar{a}.5.129 - 130.$

 $A.s. Ś \bar{a}. 10.31 = A.h. Ś \bar{a}. 5.2.$

(An unspecified number of) the preceding verses are said to be from Caraka. ⁵⁰⁴ The opinion expressed in the next verse is attributed to Suśruta: although a riṣṭa points to certain death, pure brāhmaṇas may prevent this issue by means of rasāyana, tapas and gifts (dāna) ⁵⁰⁵ (10.32cd–33ab).

Kṛṣṇātreya is referred to as an authority who distinguished sthira (stable) and asthira (unstable) ristas; the latter type may disappear, even when the dosas are

present in abundance; this presence of riṣṭās which are not fatal is called riṣṭābhāsa (10.33cd-34).⁵⁰⁶

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A.s.\hat{S}\bar{a}.10.34 = A.h.\hat{S}\bar{a}.5.3cd-4ab.
A.s.\hat{S}\bar{a}.10.35 = A.h.\hat{S}\bar{a}.5.131.
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Chapter eleven (vikṛtavyādhivijītānīya), which corresponds to part of Śā.5 of the *Hṛdaya*, begins with a long series of signs, described in prose, that announce a fatal outcome (11.2). It continues with verses describing symptoms which, when added to the usual ones of a particular disease, may be interpreted as premonitory of death.

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A.s.Śā.11.3-28 = A.h.Śā.5.71cd-96.
A verse on ariṣṭas in udara is added (11.29).
A.s.Śā.11.30-56 = A.h.Śā.5.97-120ab.
A.s.Śā.11.57-64 = A.h.Śā.5.121cd-128.
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Chapter twelve ($d\bar{u}t\bar{a}divij\bar{n}\bar{a}n\bar{i}ya$) corresponds to the chapter of the same title($\dot{S}\bar{a}.6$) of the Hrdaya.

The subjects dealt with are the topics to be discussed in this chapter: the messenger (dūta) sent to the physician; occurrences on the way of the physician from his own house to that of the patient, and those when entering the patient's house; auspicious and inauspicious dreams (12.2); a long list of characteristics regarded as inauspicious (asubha) in a messenger (12.3);507 another list of both inauspicious and auspicious characteristics (12.4);⁵⁰⁸ the next list refers to the 108 mangala things which, by seeing, touching or mentioning them, confer success upon the physician; numerous items are named ⁵⁰⁹ (12.5); ⁵¹⁰ auspicious and inauspicious omina relating to animals seen on the way to the patient's house and on entering it (12.6);⁵¹¹ auspicious and inauspicious sounds (12.7);⁵¹² sounds prohibiting treatment of the patient (12.8); more signs with the same meaning (12.9); 513 yet another list of these signs which apply on entering the patient's house or leaving it (12.10);⁵¹⁴ signs relating to the patient and meaning that treatment should not be attempted (12.11);⁵¹⁵ dreams dreamt by the patient himself and dreams of other persons⁵¹⁶ may be auspicious or inauspicious; the seven kinds of dreams; the first five kinds have no consequences (aphala); the same applies to dreams in agreement with one's constitution, dreams which are not remembered, dreams occurring during daysleep, and dreams during a too short, too long or too deep sleep (12.12); dreams occurring during the first part of the night have a slight effect that is produced after a long time, but those seen towards daybreak have a great effect, produced within a short time, as well as dreams resulting in loss of sleep in spite of soothing words and religious observances (12.13); 517 dreams announcing a particular disease (12.14); 518 a long series of inauspicious dreams (12.15).⁵¹⁹

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A.s.Śā.12.16 = A.h.Śā.6.59cd-60ab.
A.s.Śā.12.17-23 = A.h.Śā.6.64cd-7 lab.
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Auspicious and inauspicious dreams about forefathers, deities and twice-born are mentioned in two verses (12.24–25), followed by prescriptions for rituals to be observed in order to get rid of the bad effects of dreams⁵²⁰ (12.26).

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A.s. \hat{S}a.12.27-29 = A.h. \hat{S}a.6.71cd-74.
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Chapter 3 Nidānasthāna

Chapter one (sarvaroganidāna) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Ni.1) of the *Hrdaya*.

The chapter opens with a description of the life of human beings during the Kṛ-tayuga (1.2); a general decline occurred in the subsequent ages of the world, resulting in the appearance of fever and all the other diseases (1.3). ¹

A mythic story is told about the origin of fever. Pasupati's wrath had been provoked for not having got his share at a sacrifice (kratu).³ After having kept his temper for a thousand divine years, he abandoned his self-control, on the instigation of (his spouse), Rudrānī, who had been insulted during a former existence. The fire of his anger (rosāgni) came out of his head in the form of a servant (kimkara), in order to destroy the sacrifice. This servant's name was Vīrabhadra; ashes were his weapon; he had three heads, a black body, fangs, pointed ears, etc.; together with him, there appeared Bhadrakālī, fashioned by Devī, and a host of attendants, with frightening looks, as innumerable as the pores of the hairs. With a voice, resounding everywhere, intent on destruction of the Danavas and the asyamedha sacrifice, ⁶ Vīrabhadra addressed Śi va, praising him and asking for his orders. Siva ordered him to annihilate Dakşa's sacrifice and to pervade the whole world with fever, the foremost of the diseases, consisting of general heat, of the nature of tamas and mahāmoha, making human beings forget their former existences, etc. Under several names it will roam on the earth; it will be called pākaļa in elephants, abhitāpa in horses, alarka in dogs, indramada in aquatic animals, jyotis in herbs, cūrnaka in grain, nīlikā in water, ūsara in soil, and fever (įvara) in human beings 8 (1.4).

Disorders connected with fever as to their origins are discussed next. Together with fever arose (the diseases called) arocaka, angamarda, śirovyathā (headache), bhrama, klama, glāni, tṛṣṇā (thirst), saṃtāpa (a general sense of heat), etc.; raktapitta developed out of saṃtāpa; the agitation of the living beings fleeing (from Vīrabhadra) gave rise to gulma, vidradhi, vṛddhi, jaṭhara (= udara), etc.; the consumption of havis (anything offered as an oblation with fire) led to meha, kuṣtha, arśas, śopha, atīsāra, etc.; fear, grief, etc., were the causes of unmāda, apasmāra, (attacks of) grahas, etc.; the attachment of the lunar deity (nakṣatrarāja) lo to Rohiṇī made Prajāpati angry; the latter let him be afflicted by rājayakṣman and the accompanying disorders like kāsa, śvāsa, etc. The whole host of diseases does not appear without fever and may therefore be called by the samenames (1.5).

The next subjects are: the synonyms of fever, 11 the etymology of roga; knowledge of a disease arises by means of its nidāna, pūrvarūpa, rūpa, upaśaya and saṃprāpti 12

(1.6); nidāna consists of the excitement of vāta, etc., caused by the indulgence in unwholesome diet and behaviour; synonyms of nidāna¹³ (1.7); the definition of pūrvarūpa (1.8); ¹⁴ the definition of rūpa; its synonyms (1.9); ¹⁵ the definitions of upaśaya and anupaśaya (1.10); ¹⁶ the definition of saṃprāpti; ¹⁷ its synonyms ¹⁸ (1.11); ¹⁹ types of saṃprāpti (1.12); ²⁰ factors leading to excitement of vāta (1.13), pitta (1.14), kapha (1.15); ²¹ a mixture of these factors leads to excitement of two or three doṣas; ²² a list of additional factors causing excitement of all three doṣas ²³ (1.16).

The chapter ends in verse (1.17-31).

A.s.Ni.1.18 = A.h.Ni.1.23cd-24.

A disease appearing during the constellation (naksatra)²⁴ of one's conception (ādhāna) or birth (janman), or during those called nidhana, ²⁵ pratyara ²⁶ and vipatkara, ²⁷ will lead to suffering or death (1.19). The duration of a fever depends on the constellation governing the time of its first appearance; it will cease after six days when it became manifest during the Aśvinīs, ²⁸ after five days during the Bharanīs, ²⁹ after a week or three weeks during the Krttikas, 30 after eight or eleven days during Rohini, 31 after six or nine days during Mrga³² (1.20-21); when arisen during Ārdrā,³³ it will lead to death within five days, or the outcome will be doubtful after a lapse of three halves of a lunar month (tripaksa); a fever beginning during Punarvasu³⁴ leaves off after thirteen days (1.22); a fever beginning during Pusya 35 ceases after twenty-seven, two or seven days; a fever occurring during the Śleṣās 36 is fatal, even after a long time, but when a fever arises during the Maghās, 37 it will disappear if one is still alive after twelve days; one will die on the eighth day when the fever occurs during the two Phalgunis³⁸ (1.23-24); occurring during Hasta, ³⁹ a fever will cool down on the ninth or twenty-first day; the same will happen on the seventh or eighth day when it arises during Citrā⁴⁰ (1.25), on the tenth day or after three halves of a lunar month when it arises during Svāti⁴¹ on the arrival of Citrā; beginning during the Viśākhās, ⁴² however, it is fatal on the twenty-second day (1.26); it is also fatal when, appeared during Maitra, ⁴³ it has not become pacified on the ninth day; arisen during Jyesthā, ⁴⁴ it kills on the fifth day or disappears on the twelfth (1.27); a fever beginning during Mūla 45 will cease after ten days or three weeks; when it has begun during the Pūrvāsādhās, 46 it will do so on the ninth day, but after a month, eight months or nine months when it appeared during the other Āsādhās; 47 arisen during the Dhanisthās, 48 it will cease before the day of Jyesthā; it will do so on the twelfth day when arisen during the Vārunas⁴⁹ (1.28-29); appeared during the Uttarabhādrapadās, 50 it will lead to death on the sixth or twelfth day; when it occurred during the Revatīs⁵¹ it will disappear after three weeks, four or eight days. Thus says Gautama⁵² (1.30-31).

Chapter two (jvaranidāna) deals with the eight kinds of fever: caused by a single doṣa, a combination of two doṣas, and concerted action of all three doṣas (2.2); ⁵³ the pathogenesis of fever, described more elaborately than in the *Hrdaya*. ⁵⁴ the ūṣman of the doṣas is referred to, ⁵⁵ pitta is said to damage, like hot water, the digestive fire by its fluidity, and all the senses are described as being afflicted by heat (2.3); ⁵⁶ the prodromes of fever (2.4). ⁵⁷

A.s.Ni.2.5-30 = A.h.Ni.2.10cd-33.

A samnipāta fever is described in which the eyes assume a yellow (hāridra) colour (2.31–32ab).

A.s.Ni.2.32cd-50 = A.h.Ni.2.34-50.

Reasons are given for the fact that a natural (prākṛta) fever by vāta is difficult to cure (2.51).

A.s.Ni.2.52-67 = A.h.Ni.2.51-64.

A.s.Ni.2.68 is a variant of A.h.Ni.2.65ab.

The general pathophysiology and characteristics of irregular fevers (viṣamajvara) are discussed, illustrated by comparisons; ⁵⁸ their main characteristics are that they bring about a general sense of glowing heat at distinct periods (vicchinnasaṃtāpa), and that they are irregular as to their beginning, action and time of appearance (2.69–76). ⁵⁹

A.s.Ni.2.77-78 = A.h.Ni.2.65cd-67ab.

A fever with longer intervals than caturthaka (quartan fever) does not occur because, on the fifth day, the doşas have become very diluted (līna) and sluggish (2.79).

A.s.Ni.2.80-85ab = A.h.Ni.2.69cd-73ab.

The reasons for the fact that caturthaka is difficult to cure are given (2.85cd-86). A.s.Ni.2.87-88 = A.h.Ni.2.73cd-75ab.

The symptoms of irregular fevers with dosas staying in one of the seven bodily elements are described (2.89-94); 60 their degrees of curability are added (2.95ab), 61

The clinical features of the fevers called pralepaka (2.95cd-96ab), ⁶² vātabalāsaka (2.96cd-97ab), ⁶³ hāridraka (2.97cd-98ab), ⁶⁴ rātrika (2.98cd-99ab), ⁶⁵ and pūrvarātrika ⁶⁶ (2.99cd-100ab). A fever that makes one half of the body feel cold and the other half warm (2.100cd-101ab), and a fever characterized by a warm trunk and cold limbs (2.101cd-102). ⁶⁷

A.s.Ni.2.103-106 = A.h.Ni.2.76cd-79.

Chapter three (raktapittakāsanidāna) agrees with the corresponding chapter (Ni.3) of the *Hrdaya*.

A.s.Ni.3.2-21c = A.h.Ni.3.1-19a.

The aetiology and pathogenesis of cough (kāsa) are different (3.22–27) from what the *Hrdaya* presents (Ni.3.19b–21ab).

A.s.Ni.3.28-45 = A.h.Ni.3.21cd-38.

Chapters four (śvāsahidhmānidāna), five (rājayakṣmādinidāna) and six (madātyayādinidāna) are identical with the corresponding ones (Ni.4-6) of the *Hṛdaya*.

Chapter seven (arśasāṃ nidānam), corresponding to the chapter of the same title (Ni.7) of the *Hṛdaya*, is partly in prose (7.1–13), partly in verse (7.14–27).

The subjects dealt with are the same as in the Hrdaya.

A.s.Ni.7.2 corresponds to A.h.Ni.7.1–5, 7.3 to A.h.Ni.7.6–7, 7.4 to A.h.Ni.7.8, 7.5 to A.h.Ni.7.9, 7.6 to A.h.Ni.7.10–15c, 7.7 to A.h.Ni.7.15cd–20, 7.8 to A.h.Ni.7.21–22, 7.9 to A.h.Ni.7.23–28ab, 7.10 to A.h.Ni.7.28cd–34ab, 7.11 to A.h.Ni.7.34cd–37ab, 7.

12 to A.h.Ni.7.37cd-42, 7.13 to A.h.Ni.7.43-45. A.s.Ni.7.14-27 = A.h.Ni.7.46-59.

Chapter eight (atīsāragrahanīdoṣanidāna) is identical with the corresponding chapter (Ni.8) of the *Hrdaya*

Chapter nine (mūtrāghātanidāna) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Ni.9) of the *Hṛdaya*, but is in prose, one verse at the end excepted.

The chapter begins with an enumeration of the twenty types of mūtrāghāta: (mūtra)krcchra due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and all three doṣas together; aśmarī due to vāta, pitta, kapha and śukra; vātabasti, aṣthīlā, kuṇḍalikā, mūtrātīta, (mūtra)jathara, utsaṅga, granthi, (mūtra)śukra, viḍvighāta, uṣṇavāta, mūtrakṣaya, and avasāda⁶⁸ (9.2). Vātabasti and the eight disorders which follow it have a predominance of vāta; uṣṇavāta and mūtrakṣaya have a predominance of vāta and pitta, while avasāda is characterized by a predominance of kapha and pitta (9.3).⁶⁹

The physiology of urine formation is described next. ⁷⁰ When the dosas corrupt the channels transporting urine, they generate the various types of āghāta and prameha ⁷¹ (9.4).

The remaining part of the chapter deals with: the symptoms of each of the four types of mūtrakṛcchra (9.5); ⁷² the pathogenesis ⁷³ and prodromes of aśmarī (9.6); ⁷⁴ the general symptoms of aśmarī (9.7); ⁷⁵ the specific symptoms of aśmarī due to vāta, pitta, kapha; ⁷⁶ these three types occur in children too ⁷⁷ (9.8); the pathogenesis and symptoms of śukrāśmarī (9.9); ⁷⁸ the characteristic features of śarkarā (urinary gravel) (9.10); ⁷⁹ the characteristics of vātabasti (9.11), vātāṣṭhīlā, vātakuṇḍalikā, mūtrātīta (9.12), mūtrajaṭhara, mūtrotsaṅga, mūtragranthi (9.13), inūtraśukra, viḍvighāta, uṣṇavāta, mūtrakṣaya, and mūtrāvasāda (9.14).

A.s.Ni.9.15 = A.h.Ni.9.40.

Chapter ten (pramehanidāna) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ni.10), but is in prose, apart from four verses at the end.

The subjects are: the twenty types of prameha; ten types are due to kapha: udaka, ikṣu-, sāndra-, surā-, piṣṭa-, śukra-, sikatā-, śīta-, śanair-, and lālāprameha; six are due to pitta: kṣāra-, kāla-, mīla-, hāridra-, māñjiṣṭha-, and śoṇitameha; four are due to vāta: vasā-, majja-, hasti-, and madhumeha (10.2); ⁸⁰ the pathogenesis of prameha, described in a more detailed way than in the *Hṛdaya* (10.3--4); ⁸¹ the degrees of curability of the three groups of prameha and the reasons for these differences (10.5); ⁸² the general symptoms of prameha; the distinctions arise from the specific characteristics of doṣa(s) involved and dūṣya(s) affected (10.6); ⁸³ the prodromes (10.7), ⁸⁴ the characteristic features of udakameha, ikṣumeha, sāndrameha, surāmeha, piṣṭameha, śukrameha, sikatāmeha, śītameha, śanairmeha, lālāmeha, kṣārameha, kālameha, nīlameha, hāridrameha, mañjiṣṭhāmeha, śoṇitameha, vasāmeha, majjameha, and hastimeha (10.8), ⁸⁵ the pathogenesis of madhumeha; the two types of this disorder, distinguished by some authorities; ⁸⁶ when neglected, all types of prameha develop into madhumeha;

for this reason, all kinds of meha may be designated as madhumeha⁸⁷ (10.9); the complications of prameha due to kapha, pitta, vāta (10.10); ⁸⁸ the pathogenesis of the pramehapiṭakās, described more in detail than in the *Hṛdaya*; ⁸⁹ these ten piṭakās are: śarāvikā, kacchapikā, jālinī, putriṇī, vidārikā, sarṣapikā, masūrikā, alajī, vinatā, and vidradhi (10.11); the characteristics of śarāvikā, etc., up to vinatā; vidradhi will be described separately (10.12); ⁹⁰ the first five of the piṭakās are hard to endure (duḥṣaha), because they arise from a very strong kapha and medas, have the same set of symptoms as the primary disease (mūlavyādhi), and make that disease increase; the other piṭakās are less severe on account of the abundance of pitta and the slight degree to which kapha and medas are involved; the doṣa predominating in piṭakās is the same as that of the type of prameha present (10.13). ⁹¹

A.s.Ni.10.14-17 = A.h.Ni.10.36cd-37 and 40-41.

Chapter eleven (vidradhividhigulmanidāna) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Ni.11) of the *Hrdaya*.

A.s.Ni.11.1-34 = A.h.Ni.11, introductory prose, 1-33ab.

The main part of the section on gulma (11.35-42) is in prose. It deals with: the aetiology and pathogenesis of gulma, accompanied by śūla (10.35); ⁹² the doṣas in gulma; ⁹³ the five seats of gulma: urinary bladder, umbilical region, the two sides of the chest, and the cardiac region; ⁹⁴ the prodromes ⁹⁵ (10.36); the symptoms of gulma due to vāta (10.37), ⁹⁶ pitta (10.38), ⁹⁷ kapha, ⁹⁸ two doṣas, ⁹⁹ and all three doṣas ¹⁰⁰ (10.39); the reasons for the fact that raktagulma occurs in women only (10.40); the aetiology of this disorder and its symptoms; vāta and pitta are mainly involved; the differences between raktagulma and pregnancy (10.41); ¹⁰¹ the differences between gulma and vidradhi (10.42). ¹⁰²

A.s.Ni.11.43-47 = A.h.Ni.11.58-62.

Chapters twelve (udaranidāna), thirteen (pāṇḍuśophavisarpanidāna), fourteen (kuṣṭha-śvitrakṛmidāna), fifteen (vātavyādhinidāna) and sixteen (vātaśoṇitanidāna) are identical with the corresponding chapters (Ni.12–16) of the *Hṛdaya*.

Chapter 4

Cikitsitasthāna

Chapter one (jvaracikitsita), in verse, corresponds to the first part of the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ci. 1.1–83).

A.s.Ci.1.1-27 = A.h.Ci.1, introduction and 1-26ab.

Two verses on the medicinal properties of peyas are added (1.28-30).

A.s.Ci.1.31-40 = A.h.Ci.1.26cd-36ab.

A.s.Ci.1.41-42 is an enlarged version of A.h.Ci.1.36cd-37ab.

A.s.Ci.1.43-47ab = A.h.Ci.1.37cd-41.

One verse and a half are added on the bad effects of a kaṣāya when administered too early (1.47cd-48).

A.s.Ci.1.49-54 = A.h.Ci.1.42-47.

A.s.Ci.1.55 gives an additional prescription for the treatment of an āma fever.

A.s.Ci.1.56-59 = A.h.Ci.1.5lcd-55ab.

A.s.Ci.1.60-62 = A.h.Ci.1.48-51ab.

Additional material deals with five more kaṣāyas (1.63–65),³ nine prescriptions against vāta fevers (1.66–71),⁴ prescriptions against pitta fevers (1.72–76),⁵ kapha fevers (1.77–80ab),⁶ and fevers due to a combination of dosas (1.80cd–82).

A.s.Ci.1.83-85 = A.h.Ci.1.55cd-58.

A.h.Ci. 1.59 is absent from the Samgraha.

A.s.Ci.1.86-91 = A.h.Ci.1.60-65ab.

Two recipes are added (1.92-93).7

A.s.Ci.1.94 = A.h.Ci.1.65cd-66ab.

The next recipe (1.95–97ab) is longer than the corresponding one of the *Hrdaya* (1.66cd–67ab).

A.s.Ci.1.97cd-107 = A.h.Ci.1.67cd-79ab.

A.s.Ci.1.108-109 = A.h.Ci.1.81cd-83.

A.s.Ci.1.110-111 = A.h.Ci.1.79cd-81ab.

Chapter two (jīrṇa jvaracikitsita) deals with the same subjects as the second half of the chapter on the treatment of fevers (Ci.1.84–177) of the *Hṛdaya*.

A.s.Ci.2.1-7 = A.h.Ci.1.84-89.

A.s.Ci.2.8-21 takes the place of A.h.Ci.1.90-93 and describes a number of medicated ghees.⁸

A.s.Ci.2.22-25 = A.h.Ci.1.94-98.

An extra verse is devoted to the treatment of a fever arising from santarpana (2.26).

A.s.Ci.2.27-28ab = A.h.Ci.1.99-100ab.

A.s.Ci.2.28cd = A.h.Ci.1.100ef.

A.s.Ci.2.28ef is added.

A.s.Ci.2.29ab = A.h.Ci.1.100cd.

A.s.Ci.2.29cd is added.

A.s.Ci.2.30 = A.h.Ci.1.101.

A.s.Ci.2.31a-d is an addition.

A.s.Ci.2.31ef-51 = A.h.Ci.1.102ab-122.

Four additional verses (2.52-55) describe two extra clysters.⁹

A.s.Ci.2.56-57 = A.h.Ci.1.123-124.

A.s.Ci.2.58 enlarges upon A.h.Ci.1.125ab.

A.s.Ci.2.59-65 = A.h.Ci.1.125cd-132.

A medicated oil is added (2.66).

A.s.Ci.2.67-68 = A.h.Ci.1.133-135ab.

Additional verses (2.69-76ab) describe two plasters, an electuary, and some emetics. ¹⁰

A.s.Ci.2.76c-f = A.h.Ci.1.136.

Some extra verses (2.77-80) are about measures against the burning sensation in fever. 11

A.s.Ci.2.81-86 = A.h.Ci.1.137-142.

Some additional verses (2.87–89ab) describe cooling plasters.

A.s.Ci.2.89cd-90 = A.h.Ci.1.143-144ab.

An extra ardhaśloka (2.91ab) mentions that the measures described remove vāta and kapha.

A.s.Ci.2.91cd-93ab = A.h.Ci.1.144cd-146ab.

Two additional verses (2.93cd-95ab) deal with measures against shivering in fever patients.

A.s.Ci.2.95cd-96 = A.h.Ci.1.146cd-147.

A series of extra verses are concerned with the treatment of ānāha in fevers (2.97–98ab), a persistent feeling of coldness in fevers with a predominance of vāta and kapha (2.98cd–101), feelings of coldness or a burning sensation (2.102), general measures to be adopted in fevers due to kapha, pitta or vāta (2.103), ¹² and due to a combination of two or three doṣas (2.104). ¹³

A.s.Ci.2.105 = A.h.Ci.1.148.

An extra verse (2.106) is about the treatment of excessive sleepiness as a dangerous complication of fever.

A.s.Ci.2.107-114 = A.h.Ci.1.149-156.

Three additional verses (2.115–117) contain some more prescriptions against irregular fevers, 14

A.s.Ci.2.118 = A.h.Ci.1.157.

An extra verse (2.119) gives a recipe against irregular fevers. 15

A.s.Ci.2.120-122 = A.h.Ci.1.158-160.

Additional prescriptions are given which are useful on the day of arrival of a new bout of an irregular fever (2.123-124ab). 16

A.s.Ci.2.124cd-127 = A.h.Ci.1.161-164ab.

An extra verse (2.128) contains a recipe against all kinds of fever.

A.s.Ci.2.129-130 = A.h.Ci.1.164cd-166ab.

Two additional verses (2.131-132) are about the treatment of irregular fevers staying in a particular element of the body and about the treatment of vāta fever. 17

A.s.Ci.2.133–137 = A.h.Ci.1.166cd–172.

An extra verse (2.138) recommends to distract the patient by telling constructive and agreeable stories.

A.s.Ci.2.139ab = A.h.Ci.1.173ab.

A.s.Ci.2.139cd-141 = A.h.Ci.1.174-176.

An ardhaśloka (2.142ab) is added.

A.s.Ci.2.142cd = A.h.Ci.1.173cd.

The next verse (2.143) deals with religious prescriptions, as does the last stanza of the *Hṛdaya*. Its contents conform to the Hindu dharma; worship of brāhmaṇas, Hara and Hari is recommended.

The stanza that follows (2.144) says that, in order to be released from fever, one should pay obeisance to Āryāvalokita, Parņaśabarī, Aparājitā, and Āryatārā. The last verse (2.145) declares that muttering (japa) of the mantra called tathāgatoṣṇīṣa cures all diseases, fever included.

Chapter three (raktapittacikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Ci.2) of the *Hrdaya*.

A.s.Ci.3.1-9 = A.h.Ci.2, introduction and 1-9ab.

An additional verse (3.10) is about drugs to be used for purgative purposes (vireka). 18

A.s.Ci.3.11-14ab = A.h.Ci.2.9cd-12.

A.s.Ci.3.14cd enlarges upon the subject of A.h.Ci.2.14ab.

A.s.Ci.3.15-20ab = A.h.Ci.2.13-18ab.

A.s.Ci.3.20cd-22ab replaces A.h.Ci.2.18cd-20, without adding new material.

A.s.Ci.3.22cd-24ab = A.h.Ci.2.21-22.

A.s.Ci.3.24cd-26 gives additional prescriptions.

A.s.Ci.3.27-28ab = A.h.Ci.2.23-24ab.

A.s.Ci.3.28cd-29ab contains additional prescriptions.

A.s.Ci.3.29cd-31 = A.h.Ci.2.24cd-26

A number of added verses (3.32–39ab) consist of recipes. 19

A.s.Ci.3.39cd-41ab = A.h.Ci.2.27-28.

A.s.Ci.3.41cd-42 = A.h.Ci.2.30-31ab.

A.s.Ci..3.43-46 contains additional prescriptions.

A.s.Ci.3.47–48 = A.h.Ci.2.31cd–33ab.

A.s.Ci.3.49-50 gives additional prescriptions. 20

A.s.Ci.3.51-52ab = A.h.Ci.2.33cd-34.

A.s.Ci.3.52cd-54 gives additional prescriptions. 21

A.s.Ci.3.55-58ab = A.h.Ci.2.35-38ab.

An ardhaśloka (3.58cd) is added.

A.s.Ci.3.59-65ab = A.h.Ci.2.38cd-45ab.

A.s.Ci.3.65cd-66 contains additional prescriptions.

 $A.s.Ci.3.67 = A.h.Ci.2.45cd-46ab.^{22}$

A.s.Ci.3.68-70 consists of additional prescriptions.²³

A.s.Ci.3.71ab = A.h.Ci.2.47ab.

A.s.Ci.3.71cd-77 contains additional prescriptions. 24

A.s.Ci.3.78-80 = A.h.Ci.2.47cd-50.

Chapter four (kāsacikitsita) corresponds to the first part of the chapter of the same title (Ci.3.1-72) of the *Hrdaya*

A.s.Ci.4.1-6 = A.h.Ci.3, introduction and 1-6ab.

Some extra verses (4.7-10ab) deal with a recipe.

A.s.Ci.4.10cd-29 = A.h.Ci.3.6cd-28.

Additional verses (4.30-32) descrive five electuaries. ²⁵

A.s.Ci.4.33-35 = A.h.Ci.3.29-32ab.

Two additional verses (4.36-37) give two recipes. ²⁶

A.s.Ci.4.38-42 = A.h.Ci.3.32cd-38ab.

A.s.Ci.4.43–45 describes thick medicated ghees, to be used in the same way as electuaries.

A.s.Ci.4.46-53 = A.h.Ci.3.38cd-46ab.

Two extra verses (4.54–55) add four electuaries to the three of the Hrdaya.²⁷

A.s.Ci.4.56-59 = A.h.Ci.3.46cd-50ab.

 $A.s.Ci.4.60ab = A.h.Ci.3.51ab.^{28}$

A.s.Ci.4.60cd-61 gives additional prescriptions.

 $A.s.Ci.4.62 = A.h.Ci.3.51cd-52ab.^{29}$

A.s.Ci.4.63 replaces A.h.Ci.3.52cd-53ab.

A.s.Ci.4.64-66ab = A.h.Ci.3.53cd-55.

A.s.Ci.4.66cd-67ab contains an additional prescription. 30

A.s.Ci.4.67cd-74 = A.h.Ci.3.56-62.

A prescription (4.75–77ab) replaces A.h.Ci.3.63ab.

A.s.Ci.4.77cd-81ab = A.h.Ci.3.63cd-67ab.

A.s.Ci.4.81cd-83 gives additional recipes.

A.s.Ci.4.84-86 = A.h.Ci.3.67cd-69.

A.s.Ci.4.87-90 describes additional recipes. 31

A.s.Ci.4.91-93 = A.h.Ci.3.70-72

Chapter five (kṣatakṣayakāsacikitsita) corresponds to the second part of the chapter on kāsacikitsita (Ci.3.73–180) of the *Hrdaya*.

A.s.Ci.5.2-12 = A.h.Ci.3.73-83. A.s.Ci.5.13ab adds a prescription against haemoptysis.

A.s.Ci.5.13cd-15ab = A.h.Ci.3.84-85.

Some extra verses (5.15cd-18ab) describe an electuary. 32

A.s.Ci.5.18cd-26 = A.h.Ci.3.86-94ab.

An additional verse (5.27) deals with a medicated ghee.

A.s.Ci.5.28-45 = A.h.Ci.3.94cd-113.

A long series of additional verses describe sarpirgue as (5.46-54) and a modaka (5.55-60).

A.s.Ci.5.61-72 = A.h.Ci.3.114-125.

Extra verses (5.73-77) deal with yūsas and a mantha.

A.s.Ci.5.78-117 = A.h.Ci.3.126-167ab.

A.h.Ci.3.167cd-169ab is absent from the Saingraha.

A.s.Ci.5.118-120ab = A.h.Ci.3.169cd-171.

Some additional electuaries are described (5.120cd-123).³⁴

A.s.Ci.5.124-127 = A.h.Ci.3.172-175.

Two extra verses are about a peyā (5.128-129).35

A.s.Ci.5.130-134 = A.h.Ci.3.176-180

Chapter six (śvāsahidhmācikitsita) deals with the same subjects as the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ci.4).

A.s.Ci.6.1-32ab = A.h.Ci.4, introduction and 1-31.

A.s.Ci.6.32cd-35ab replaces A.h.Ci.4.32.

A.s.Ci.6.35cd-42ab = A.h.Ci.4.33-39.

Some additional stanzas enlarge upon a prescription (6.42cd) and give a supplementary one (6.43-44). ³⁶

A.s.Ci.6.45-46 = A.h.Ci.4.40-41.

Additional verses (6.47-48ab) give the recipes of electuaries.

A.s.Ci.6.48cd-52ab = A.h.Ci.4.42-45.

Extra verses (4.52cd-55ab) describe electuaries.

A.s.Ci.6.55cd-57 = A.h.Ci.4.46-48ab.

An ardhaśloka is added (6.58ab).

A.s.Ci.6.58cd-65ab = A.h.Ci.4.48cd-55ab.

Extra verses (6.65cd-69cd) deal with some medicated ghees.³⁷

A.s.Ci.6.69ef-71 = A.h.Ci.4.56-58ab.

An additional verse (6.72) is about exceptions to the rules mentioned in the preceding verse. ³⁸

A.s.Ci.6.73-74 = A.h.Ci.4.58cd-60.

Chapter seven (rājayakṣmacikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Ci.5) of the *Hṛdaya*.

A.s.Ci.7.1-12 = A.h.Ci.5, introduction and 1-11.

Additional verses (7.13–18ab) describe a preparation called candrakānta and a rāga.

A.s.Ci.7.18cd-23 = A.h.Ci.5.12-17.

The recipe of a medicated ghee is added (7.24-27).³⁹

A.s.Ci.7.28-36 = A.h.Ci.5.18-27.

Additional verses describe pārāśaraghṛta (7.37–38) and other medicated ghees (7. 39–43).⁴⁰

A.s.Ci.7.44-48 = A.h.Ci.5.28-33ab.

Five electuaries are added (7.49-51).⁴¹

A.s.Ci.7.52ab = A.h.Ci.5.33cd.

A.s.Ci.7.52cd-53 replaces A.h.Ci.5.34.

A.s.Ci.7.54-61 = A.h.Ci.5.35-43ab.

An extra verse (7.62) supplements the preceding recipe and recommends cutting a vein in the forehead when the treatment is not successful.

A.s.Ci.7.63-72 = A.h.Ci.5.43cd-53.

Additional verses deal with a mouthwash (mukhadhāvana) (7.73), four gargles (kavalagraha) (7.74–76), and another preparation of the same kind (7.77).

A.s.Ci.7.78-84ab = A.h.Ci.5.54-60.

Some extra verses (7.84cd-86) describe a modaka.⁴²

A.s.Ci.7.87-92 = A.h.Ci.5.61-66.

A.s.Ci.7.93ab replaces A.h.Ci.5.67ab.

A.s.Ci.7.93cd-94ab = A.h.Ci.5.67cd-68ab.

A.s.Ci..7.94cd-96 replaces A.h.Ci.5.68cd.

A.s.Ci.7.97-99cd = A.h.Ci.5.69-73ab.

A series of prescriptions are added (7.99ef-104).⁴³

A.s.Ci.7.105 = A.h.Ci.5.73cd-74ah.

Extra verses are about the serious nature of $r\bar{a}$ jayakṣman (7.106) and a rasāyana method of treatment (7.107–109ab).

A.s.Ci.7.109cd-118 = A.h.Ci.5.74cd-84

The last verse (7.119) recommends the purohita to perform the isti that overcame the \bar{a} jayakṣman of Candra (the moon god). 45

Chapter eight (chardihṛdrogatṛṣṇācikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title (Ci.6) of the *Hrdaya*

A.s.Ci.8.1–16ab = A.h.Ci.6, introduction and 1–16.

An ardhaśloka (8.16cd) is added.

A.s.Ci.8.17ab = A.h.Ci.6.17ab.

Some prescriptions against vomiting are added (8.17cd-19).

A.s.Ci.8.20-21ab = A.h.Ci.6.17cd-18.

An ardhaśloka is added (8.21cd).

A.s.Ci.8.22-23 = A.h.Ci.6.19-20.

A.s.Ci.8.24-25ab replaces A.h.Ci.6.21.

A.s.Ci.8.25cd-26 = A.h.Ci.6.22-23ab.

A.s.Ci.8.27–30 replaces, in ślokas, the two verses in indravaj $r\bar{a}$ and upaj \bar{a} ti metre (Ci.6.23–24) of the Hrdaya

A.s.Ci.8.31-45 = A.h.Ci.6.25-4lab.

A prescription (8.46-48) is added.

A.s.Ci.8.49-72ab = A.h.Ci.6.41cd-66ab.

An ardhaśloka is added (8.72cd).

A.s.Ci.8.73-77 = A.h.Ci.6.66cd-71.

A prescription is added (8.78).

A.s.Ci.8.79-91 = A.h.Ci.6.72-85.

Chapter nine (madātyayacikitsita) corresponds to the madātyayādicikitsita chapter (Ci. 7) of the *Hṛdaya*.

A.s.Ci.9.1-31 = A.h.Ci.7, introduction and 1-32.

Additional verses deal with remedial measures against a burning sensation (dāha); these measures consist of: bāhya- and antahparimārjana (9.32), remembering the trees of the Malaya mountains (9.33), ⁴⁷ various cooling objects (9.34–36), ⁴⁸ remembering the river Sindhu with its herds of elephants (9.37), listening to stories about rivers, ponds, etc. (9.38), ⁴⁹ and cooling drugs (9.39–40).

A.s.Ci.9.41 replaces A.h.Ci.7.33ab; 9.42–43 replaces A.h.Ci.7.33cd–34ab. A.s.Ci.9.44–49 = A.h.Ci.7.34cd–41.

Three extra verses (9.50-52) deal with preparations of the type called raga. So A.s.Ci.9.53-56 = A.h.Ci.7.42-46ab.

Three additional verses (9.57-59) describe a drink of the type called pānaka.

A.s.Ci.9.60 = A.h.Ci.7.46cd-47ab.

An extra verse (9.61) recommends honouring the shoots of the wishing tree (kalpadruma) of dharma and the five arrows of the bow of the god of love.

A.s.Ci.9.62-128 = A.h.Ci.7.47cd-115.

Chapter ten (arśasāṇn cikitsitam) differs from the corresponding chapter (Ci.8) of the *Hṛdaya* in being mainly in prose.

The subjects covered are: the use of the arsoyantra in inspecting haemorrhoids; the same instrument is used in treating them by means of cauterization and the application of caustics (10.2);⁵¹ large heamorrhoids in strong patients require excision, followed by cauterization; 52 haemorrhoids which look like mushrooms should be ligated with a ksārasūtra⁵³ (10.3); after-treatment (10.4); ⁵⁴ when a remnant is left, cautery should be repeated; 55 in this way, one haemorrhoid should be removed each week; 56 those at the right side should be removed first, subsequently those situated on the left side, posterior side, and anterior side; ⁵⁷ removal of all the haemorrhoids in one day is regarded as the fault called atiyoga; 58 dry haemorrhoids require treatment with cautery or caustics, moist ones require a mild caustic; ⁵⁹ the rules mentioned are applicable to all polypous growths (arsas) which may occur at some place of the body; 60 haemorrhoids in the region of the third anal fold (vali) should only be treated after warning the patient, or they should, according to another opinion, not be treated at all⁶¹ (10.5); the signs of proper and improper cauterization (10.6); 62 the treatment of pain in the region of the bladder 63 and retention of urine and faeces (mūtrapurīsapratīghāta); 64 measures to loosen the bowels (10.7); 65 oleation, etc., should also be applied; 66 other useful measures are to be found in the chapter on the treatment of vranas (10.8); 67 methods for treating haemorrhoids which cannot be managed by means of surgery, caustics or cautery: the application of oils, ⁶⁸ sudation, ⁶⁹ fumigation, ⁷⁰ plasters (pradeha), ⁷¹ and oils ⁷² (10.9); an oil for abhyaiga of the anal region, ⁷³ followed by sudation and a (sitz)bath; ⁷⁴ the application of a suppository (varti); 75 the frequency and total duration of the described methods of treatment; ⁷⁶ medicinal substances to be used afterwards ⁷⁷ (10.10); the preparation of the electuary called harītakīpāka; 78 firm and swollen haemorrhoids which do not bleed require bloodletting (10.11); 79 preparations against weakness of the digestive fire, swelling of the anus, and piercing pain (10.12); 80 other preparations (10.13); 81 more recipes (10.14); preparations with citraka and some other plants (10.15); 82 more preparations (10.16); the importance of preparations containing takra (10.17); 83 medicated alcoholic drinks are useful to those in the habit of consuming liquor (10.18): the formulae called abhayāriṣṭa (10.19),84 durālabhāriṣṭa (10.20),85 āmalakāriṣṭa (10. 21), 86 and guggulvāsava (10.22); 87 these preparations are useful to those who habitually drink alcoholic beverages; medicated drinks for those not used to alcohol (10. 23); 88 the drugs mentioned in the preceding passage may also be employed in preparing peyās, yūsas, ghees, etc. (10.24); 89 the preparation of karañjaśukta and a more active variant of the same recipe (10.25); 90 the preparation of gandīrakāñjika (10.26); 91 the treatment of haemorrhoids in patients with dry bowels (rūksakostha); the preparation of pāthādighrta (10.27) and pippalyādighrta (10.28); 92 constipation accompanying haemorrhoids requires the same treatment as udavarta, loose stools the same as that of diarrhoea, much bleeding the same as that of raktapitta and raktātisāra (10.29); loss of impure blood ought not to be stopped; treatment of the dosas involved is necessary (10.30); 93 the treatment of cases with a large amount of kapha (10.31-32) 94 or vāta (10.33);95 styptic measures (10.34).96

A section in verses describes peyās (10.35–37), khalas, sūpas, yūṣas, etc. (10.38–42), meat broths (10.43–45), and various other preparations (10.46–49) against bleeding haemorrhoids. ⁹⁷

The chapter continues in prose again. The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of udāvarta as a complication of haemorrhoids (10.50); ⁹⁸ the formulae of kalyāṇakakṣāra, ⁹⁹ kānkāyanakṣāra, ¹⁰⁰ and mahākṣāra ¹⁰¹ (10.51); other preparations (10.52); purgatives (10.53); ¹⁰² the treatment of constipation and retention of flatus (vidvātavibandha) (10.54).

The chapter ends with verses giving a summary of the various ways to manage haemorrhoids of different types (10.55–62), ¹⁰³

A.s.Ci.10.63 = A.h.Ci.8.164

Chapter eleven (atīsāracikitsita) differs from the corresponding chapter of the *Hṛdaya* in being mainly in prose.

The chapter begins with general rules for the treatment of diarrhoea (atīsāra) (11. 2). 104

A verse (11.3) teaches that, after the elimination of dosa remnants, samgrahana by means of pācana and stambhana measures is permitted. ¹⁰⁵

The chapter goes on with remedial measures applicable when moderate amounts of doşa(s) are involved, ¹⁰⁶ when āma is accompanied by blood (11.4), and when a small amount of doşa(s) is present; ¹⁰⁷ suitable drinks and foods when the patient is thirsty or hungry (11.5–6); ¹⁰⁸ the symptomatology of pravāhikā, ¹⁰⁹ also called bimbisī; its treatment is like that of udāvarta (11.7); the treatment of thirst in patients with varcalıkṣaya; ¹¹⁰ the treatment of bimbisī; three khalakas are described: one khalaka without a name, ¹¹¹ ajitakhalaka, and aparājitakhalaka ¹¹² (11.8); more prescriptions against pravāhikā (11.9–10); ¹¹³ dadhi as a useful substance against bimbisī (11.11); ¹¹⁴ the use of milk, fresh and still warm, and of medicated milk preparations, in cases

of thirst, accompanied by a bloody and slimy diarrhoea (11.12); ¹¹⁵ clysters to be administered when piercing pain is present (11.13); the treatment of a prolapse of the anus (gudabhraṃśa) (11.14–15); ¹¹⁶ the treatment of atisāra due to pitta (11.16–22), ¹¹⁷ raktātisāra (bloody diarrhoea) (11.23–26), ¹¹⁸ atisāra due to kapha (11.27); ¹¹⁹ vāta increases in its own seats when kapha is deficient; this condition requires speedy treatment (11.28). ¹²⁰

A.s.Ci.11.29-30 = A.h.Ci.9.123-124.

The last few verses (11.31-33) recapitulate the principles of treatment of atisāra.

Chapter twelve (grahanīdoşacikitsita) differs from the corresponding chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Ci.10) in being partly in prose (12.1–4 and 8–16), partly in verse.

Grahaṇīdoṣa should be treated first like ajīrṇa; the treatment of the latter disorder is discussed in the mātrāśitīya chapter (Sū.l I); subsequently, it should be treated like atīsāra; recipes helpful in digesting āma are mentioned (12.2); ¹²¹ more recipes follow, useful in different types of grahaṇī, accompanied by pravāha, śūla, etc. (12.3); ¹²² suitable articles of diet are listed (12.4). ¹²³

A.s.Ci.12.5-6 = A.h.Ci.10.4-5.

A verse on takra is added (12.7). 124

The treatment of grahanīdoṣa due to vāta (12.8-10), 125 pitta (12.11-12), 126 kapha (12.13-16), 127 and all three doṣas $(12.16)^{128}$ is described.

The remaining part of the chapter is in verse.

A.s.Ci.12.17-20ab = A.h.Ci.10.66-69ab.

A.s.Ci.12.20cd-21 replaces A.h.Ci.10.69cd-71ab.

A.s.Ci.12.22-40 = A.h.Ci.10.71cd-91.

A.s.Ci.12.41 replaces A.h.Ci.10.92-93.

Chapter thirteen (mūtrāghātacikitsita) differs from the corresponding chapter of the Hr-daya (Ci.11) in being largely in prose.

The chapter begins with the general treatment of mūtrakṛcchra due to vāta (13.2) ¹²⁹ and proceeds with a number of prescriptions (13.3); ¹³⁰ the treatment of mūtrāghāta due to pitta (13.4), ¹³¹ kapha (13.5), ¹³² and all three dosas (13.6) ¹³³ is dealt with next.

Three additional verses (13.7–9) describe recipes against mūtrakrcchra in general. The section that follows is about aśmarī (vesical calculi).

It begins with the general treatment of cases of recent origin (13.10)¹³⁴ and proceeds with the treatment of asmarī due to vāta (13.11–12),¹³⁵ pitta (13.13),¹³⁶ and kapha (13.14);¹³⁷ the preparation of an electuary against asmarī (13.15) and a kṣārāvaleha against asmarī and sarkarā (urinary gravel) (13.16) is described;¹³⁸ more recipes follow (13.17–19);¹³⁹ measures and recipes effective against all kinds of mūtrāghāta and against sukrāsmarī are dealt with (13.20–24),¹⁴⁰

When all these measures fail, the physician should ask for permission from the king for surgical intervention, because, without use of the knife, the patient faces certain death (13.25–26). ¹⁴¹ The surgical procedure is described, followed by after-treatment and rules to be observed by the patient for a long time after the operation (13.27–31). ¹⁴²

The chapter ends with the eight places not to be touched by the knife and the disorders that would follow from injury to these parts (13.32–33). ¹⁴³

Chapter fourteen (pramehacikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ci.12), but is mainly in prose again.

The chapter begins by stating that, in patients with prameha, prāṇa converts the ingested food into urine and fatty tissue; 144 general therapeutic measures are mentioned (14.2). 145

Purificatory measures are described (14.3); ¹⁴⁶ subsequently, appeasing (śamana) measures are required (14.4); ¹⁴⁷ prescriptions useful in all cases of prameha (14.5); ¹⁴⁸ four kaṣāyas against prameha due to kapha ¹⁴⁹ and five against prameha due to pitta ¹⁵⁰ (14.6); recipes useful in udakameha, sikatāmeha, kṣārameha, and śoṇitameha (14. 7); ¹⁵¹ the palliative treatment of prameha due to vāta and with an abundance of kapha and pitta; ¹⁵² the treatment of vasāmeha, majjameha, hastimeha, and madhumeha ¹⁵³ (14.8); the treatment of the various kinds of prameha due to vāta with involvement of kapha or pitta as a secondary doṣa (14.9); ¹⁵⁴ snehas in the treatment of prameha (14.10–11); ¹⁵⁵ oils against all kinds of prameha (14.12); ¹⁵⁶ the formula of dhānvantarasarpis (14.13); ¹⁵⁷ useful articles of food (14.14); ¹⁵⁸ the formulae of lodhrāsava (14.15), ¹⁵⁹ daśamūlāriṣṭa (14.16) ¹⁶⁰ and lohāriṣṭa (14.17); ¹⁶¹ recipes for patients who object against alcoholic preparations (14.18), ¹⁶² more prescriptions (14.19); ¹⁶³ rules of conduct for patients suffering from prameha (14.20); ¹⁶⁴ the treatment of the piṭikās occurring in prameha patients (14.21); ¹⁶⁵ more prescriptions against these pitikās (14.22). ¹⁶⁶

The verses at the end of the chapter deal with an oil for the treatment of piṭakās and related disorders (14.23–25); ¹⁶⁷ the urgency of treatment when piṭakās appear (14.26); ¹⁶⁸ the serious nature of prameha (14.27). ¹⁶⁹

Chapter fifteen (vidradhividdhicikitsita), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ci.13), is in prose, with some verses at the end.

The subjects dealt with in the first half of the chapter are: the general measures to be adopted in the immature (āma) and mature (pakva) stages of an abscess (vidradhi) (15. 2); ¹⁷⁰ the treatment of an internal (ābhyantara) abscess (15.3–6); ¹⁷¹ the surgical treatment of a ripe abscess of the koṣṭha (15.7); ¹⁷² a ripe internal abscess, with purulent matter flowing out upwards or downwards, should be left untreated for a period of ten days (15.8); ¹⁷³ when the production of pus is thought to be insufficient, it should be stimulated by the use of particular drinks and gruels; medicated ghees are to be administered after a period of ten days (15.9); ¹⁷⁴ after purification of the abscess, tiktakasarpis is recommended; ¹⁷⁵ in general, ripening should be prevented; if it occurs nevertheless, one should leave the outcome to fate; ¹⁷⁶ an abscess in patients with prameha requires the treatment described for that disease (15.10); ¹⁷⁷ the treatment of a mammary abscess (stanavidradhi) (15.11). ¹⁷⁸

The subjects of the secondhalf of the chapter are: the treatment of vrddhi (enlargement of the scrotum) due to vāta (15.12), ¹⁷⁹ pitta (15.13), ¹⁸⁰ kapha (15.14), ¹⁸¹ fatty tissue (15.15), ¹⁸² and urine (15.16), ¹⁸³ the treatment of antravrddhi; the preparation of

sukumārataila and gandharvahastataila (15.17). ¹⁸⁴ A.s.Ci.15.18-21 = A.h.Ci.13.48-51.

Chapter sixteen (gulmacikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛ-daya* (Ci.14), but is almost completely in prose.

The chapter begins with the general therapeutic management of gulma (16.2). 185

The next subject is the treatment of gulma due to vata (16.3–18): several prescriptions which are found in other chapters, some additions (16.3), ¹⁸⁶ the formulae of hapuṣādighṛta, ¹⁸⁷ śuṇṭhyādighṛta (16.4), laśunādighṛta ¹⁸⁸ (16.5), dādhikasarpis, ¹⁸⁹ and another ghee ¹⁹⁰ (16.6); treatment with oleation and sudation (16.7); ¹⁹¹ indications for oleation, clysters, etc. (16.8); ¹⁹² increase of kapha by these treatments is to be avoided; measures against increased kapha (16.9); ¹⁹³ prescriptions against śūla occurring in gulma caused by vāta (16.10); ¹⁹⁴ more prescriptions against sūla (16.11–13); the formula of kṣārāgada, attributed to Bhela (16.14); ¹⁹⁵ prescriptions against increase of pitta in cases of gulma due to vāta (16.15); ¹⁹⁶ prescriptions against constipation (vidvibandha) in cases of gulma (16.16); ¹⁹⁷ recipes against gulma and śūla (16.17); purgative prescriptions; the formula of nīlinīghṛta ¹⁹⁸ (16.18).

The chapter proceeds with the treatment of gulma due to pitta $(16.19-23)^{199}$ and kapha (16.24-36). ²⁰⁰

The passages on the treatment of gulma due to kapha describe the preparation of bhallātakaghṛta (16.25); ²⁰¹ the application of a small jar to the place where the gulma is present and the later removal of this jar (16.26), ²⁰² followed by local pressure and rubbing; ²⁰³ oleation, sudation, purgation, etc. (16.27); ²⁰⁴ particular prescriptions: mi-śrakasneha (16.28–29), ²⁰⁵ dantīharītakyavaleha (16.30), ²⁰⁶ purgatives (16.31–33). ²⁰⁷

A.s.Ci.16.34-35 = A.h.Ci.14.114-115.

The subjects of the last part of the chapter are: the method to be used in cauterization; after-treatment (16.36);²⁰⁸ the treatment of gulma due to a combination of doşas can be inferred (16.37);²⁰⁹ the treatment of gulma due to blood (raktagulma) (16.38–39);²¹⁰ the measures to be resorted to when the accumulated blood flows out (16.40);²¹¹ suitable foods and drinks for gulma patients (16.41);²¹² the treatment of ānāha (16.42).

The chapter ends with a verse (16.43),²¹³ stating that gulma increases when the digestive fire is sluggish, while the disorder is alleviated when the fire is duly active.

Chapter seventeen (udaracikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (Ci.15). The major part (17.1–42) is in prose; it ends with a series of verses (17.43–54).

The subjects dealt with are: the general treatment of udara with purgatives (17.2);²¹⁴ various prescriptions against udara in general (17.3–8);²¹⁵ recipes to be employed in the next stage of treatment, when the patient has gained strength: purgatives (17.9), patolādicūrņa (17.10),²¹⁶ mūtravarti (17.11);²¹⁷ prescriptions removing remnants of the doṣa(s) left (17.12–13);²¹⁸ the treatment of udara in general and udara due to vāta (17.14–21),²¹⁹ pitta (17.22–25),²²⁰ kapha (17.26),²²¹ and all the doṣas (17.27–29);²²² a dangerous treatment with poisonous substances, to be applied only after informing the patient's relatives about the risks involved (17.30); this

procedure will lead to cure or to death (17.31); ²²³ dietary rules to be observed after this treatment (17.32); ²²⁴ the treatment of plīhodara (splenomegalia) and yakṛdudara (swelling of the liver); ²²⁵ formulae mentioned and partly described are: ṣaṭpalaghṛta, mahāṣaṭpalaghṛta, and rohītakaṣaṭpalaghṛta (17.33–37); the treatment of baddhodara (17.38), ²²⁶ chidrodara²²⁷ and dakodara ²²⁸ (17.39); the surgical treatment of udara; after-treatment (17.40); ²²⁹ the surgical draining of the fluid accumulated in the abdominal cavity in cases of dakodara (17.41); the repetition of this intervention after certain intervals; after-treatment; rules to be observed by the patient (17.42). ²³⁰

$$A.s.Ci.17.43-54 = A.h.Ci.15.119cd-132.$$

Chapter eighteen (pāṇḍurogacikitsita), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ci.16), is partly in prose, partly in verse.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of pāṇḍuroga should begin with the administration of kalyāṇaka-, ²³¹ pañcagavya-, ²³² tiktakasarpis, ²³³ or some other medicated ghee; ²³⁴ the preparation of dādimādyaghṛta, also useful ²³⁵ (18.2); another medicated ghee (18.3); ²³⁶ the administration of these ghees has to be followed by oleation, emesis and purgation; recipes (18.4); ²³⁷ a cūrṇa (18.5); ²³⁸ a recipe for vaṭakas; ²³⁹ the formula of navāyasacūrṇa (18.6); ²⁴⁰another recipe for vaṭakas (18.7); ²⁴¹ the recipe for the pills (guṭikā) called yogarāja (18.8); ²⁴² the recipes for vajravaṭakas (18.9)²⁴³ and drākṣāleha (18.10); ²⁴⁴ foods and drinks suitable in pāṇḍuroga due to vāṭa, pitṭa, kapha (18.11); ²⁴⁵ the recipes of bījakasārāriṣṭa (18.12), gaṇḍīrāriṣṭa (181.13) and mastvariṣṭa (18.14). ²⁴⁶

A.s.Ci.18.15ab corresponds to A.h.Ci.16.33ab.

A.s.Ci.18.15cd-22 = A.h.Ci.16.33cd-41ab.

A number of prescriptions are added (18.23-27).

A.s.Ci.18.28-29cd = A.h.Ci.16.41cd-43ab.

A.s.Ci.18.29ef is an addition.

A.s.Ci..18.30 = A.h.Ci.16.43cd-44ab.

A.h.Ci.16.44cd is absent from the Samgraha.

A.s.Ci.18.31-42 = A.h.Ci.16.45-57.

Chapter nineteen (śvayathucikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya*, but is in prose, except for a few verses at the end.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of śvayathu affecting the whole body (19. 2-9); 247 the treatment of ekāṅga ja śvayathu, affecting one limb only (19.10–11); 248 the treatment of śvayathu due to vāta (19.12), 249 pitta (19.13), 250 kapha (19.14–15), 251 and a combination of doṣas (19.16). 252

The treatment of śvayathu due to a trauma (abhighāta) and to a poison is discussed in a verse (19.17), different from that found in the *Hrdaya*.²⁵³

A.s.Ci.19.18 = A.h.Ci.17.42.

Chapter twenty (visarpacikitsita) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hr*-daya (Ci.18), but is in prose, except for two verses at the end.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of visarpa during the prodromal stage (20.

the other bodily elements (23.11);²⁹⁶ the treatment to be applied when vāta affects an unborn or young child (23.12),²⁹⁷ and when vāta stays in sirās, snāvas, or junctures (23.13);²⁹⁸ cases of apatānaka to be treated quickly (23.14);²⁹⁹ treatments for apatānaka (23.15–22);³⁰⁰ the treatment of antarāyāma and bahirāyāma (23.23).³⁰¹

$$A.s.Ci.23.24-25 = A.h.Ci.21.39-40.$$

The subjects discussed next are: the treatment of the two types (vivṛtāsya and sarɪ-vṛtāsya) of hanustambha (23.26); 302 the treatment of jihvāstambha 303 and ekāyāma 304 (23.27); the preparation of aṇutaila (23.28); 305 the preparation of a sahasrapāka, respectively śatapāka oil, to be employed accompanied by magical and religious acts (23.29); 306 various measures useful in ekāngaroga, avabāhuka, 307 viśvabhī, etc. (23. 30); the treatment of ūrustambha (23.31); 308 the treatment of ūrustambha and other vāta diseases (23.32–33). 309

A.s.Ci.23.34-39 = A.h.Ci.21.56-61.

The preparation of an oil is added (23.40-42).

A.s.Ci.23.43-44ab = A.h.Ci.21.62-63ab.

A.s.Ci,23,44cd differs from A.h.Ci,21.63cd.

A.s.Ci.23.45 = A.h.Ci.21.64

The preparation of prasārinītaila, described next in the *Hṛdaya* (21.65–66), is found later in this chapter in the *Samgraha*.

A.s.Ci.23.46-48 = A.h.Ci.21.67-69.

The formulae of ketakītaila (23.49), lašunataila (23.50–54) 310 and prasāriņītaila (23.55–56). 311

A second sahacārataila 312 is described (23.57-60). 313

A.s.Ci.23.61 is an addition to the description of balātaila.

A.s.Ci.23.62-69 = A.h.Ci.21.73cd-81 (balātaila).

Some more oils are described: abhayātaila (23.70–76ab), rāsnāditaila,³¹⁴ other, similarly prepared oils (23.76g–h),³¹⁵ mūlakataila³¹⁶ (23.77–79);³¹⁷ some more formulae (23.80–87).

A.s.Ci.23.88-89 = A.h.Ci.21.82-83.

Chapter twenty-four (vātaśonitacikitsita), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ci.22), is partly in prose (24.1–15), partly in verse (24.16–53).

The subjects dealt with in the first part are: treatment by various methods of blood-letting (24.2); ³¹⁸ contra-indications for bloodletting; alternatives (24.3); ³¹⁹ old ghee ³²⁰ or śatāvarīghṛta ³²¹ are indicated when vāta is the strongest doṣa (24.4); the preparation and actions of jīvanīyasarpis (24.5); ³²² useful oils (24.6); other preparations (24.7–8); prescriptions against vātaśoṇita with a predominance of pitta (24.9); ³²³ more prescriptions (24.10–11); bloodletting is recommended when blood is a very strong element (24.12); prescriptions against vātaśoṇita with a predominance of kapha (24.13–14) ³²⁴ and against the same disease when due to a combination of doṣas (24.15). ³²⁵

The second part of the chapter, devoted to the therapy of the bāhya type of vātaśonita, deals with: an enumeration of suitable therapeutic measures (24.16); ³²⁶ prescriptions against bāhyavātaśonita with a predominance of vāta (24.17), pitta or blood (24. 18), ³²⁷ kapha (24.19), vāta or kapha (24.20), ³²⁸ pitta or blood (24.21); the formula of madhuyaştitaila (24.22-25)329 and śatapākamadhuyaştitaila (24.26-27).

A.s.Ci.24.28-29 = A.h.Ci.22.47-48.

When in gambhīravātaśonita the blood has been reached, a special line of treatment is recommended (24.30ab). The treatment required when blood and pitta have increased excessively is described (24.30cd-32ab).

The third part of the chapter is about special cases of vātaśonita.

A.s.Ci.24.32-33 = A.h.Ci.22.49-50.

A.h.Ci.22.51-53ab is absent from the Samgraha.

A.s.Ci.24.34-51 = A.h.Ci.22.53cd-72.

Chapter 5 Kalpasthāna

Chapter one (vamanakalpa), ¹ corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛ-daya* (Ka.1), is, apart from the concluding verse, in prose.

The best emetic drugs are enumerated: madana, jīmūtaka, ikṣvāku, the two kinds of kośātakī, and the fruits of kuṭaja; ² the fruits of madana are the very best³ (1.2); the most suitable emetic preparation depends on the main doṣa and dūṣya involved in the disorder that is present, etc. (1.3); ⁴ some of the actually innumerable preparations will be described (1.4).

The chapter is divided into six parts, dealing with preparations containing as the most important ingredient madana (1.5–18), jīmūta (1.19–22), ikṣvāku (1.23–28), dbāmārgava (1.29–30), kṛtavedhana (1.31), and kuṭaja (1.32).

The way madana fruits should be collected, prepared and dried is described (1.5); the preparation of a kaṣāya with madana seeds (1.6); various other preparations with the seeds or pulp from the fruits of madana (1.7-17); when the fruits of madana are not available, the flowers or roots should be employed and prepared in the same way (1.18).

The fruits of jīmūta, etc., should be handled like those of madana; disorders are mentioned which are especially suitable to treatment with jīmūta preparations (1.19); ⁹ various preparations with jīmūta (1.20–22); ¹⁰ special indications for the use of ikṣvāku (1.23); ¹¹ preparations with ikṣvāku (1.24–28); ¹² special indications for dhāmārgava; ¹³ some preparations with it ¹⁴ (1.29–30); special indications for kṛtavedhana preparations (1.31); ¹⁵ special indications for kuṭa ja fruits; ¹⁶ some preparations with kuṭa ja ¹⁷ (1.32).

The chapter ends with a summarizing verse (1.33). 18

Chapter two (virecanakalpa), ¹⁹ corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya*, is, apart from six prose passages at the beginning, in verse.

The chapter deals with preparations having as their main ingredient trv.t (2.2–33), rājavrkṣa (2.34–42), tilvaka (2.43–47), sudhā (2.48–56), śaṅkhinī and saptalā (2.57–59), dantī and dravantī (2.60–74), and harītakī (2.75–80).

The best purgative root is that of trivit, the best bark that of tilvaka, the best milky exudation that of snuhī, the best fruit that of harītakī. ²⁰ The root of trivitā is of two types: aruṇa and śyāva in colour; ²¹ the properties and actions of the aruṇa type, which is called trivit²², and of the other type, called śyāmā²³ (2.3); the collection of the roots and the drying of their rind (2.4); ²⁴ preparations useful in disorders due to vāta, pitta and kapha (2.5); ²⁵ more preparations (2.6). ²⁶

A.s.Ka.2.7-19 = A.h.Ka.2.9cd-23ab.²⁷

A.s.Ka.2.20-25 = A.h.Ka.2.24-30ab.

A.s.Ka.2.26-33 are taken from the Carakasamhitā.28

A.s.Ka.2.34-39 = A.h.Ka.2.30cd-36.

Two additional verses (2.40-41) are borrowed from the Carakasamhitā again. 29

A.s.Ka.2.42-45 = A.h.Ka.2.37-40.

A.s.Ka.2.46-47ab derive from the Carakasamhitā. 30

A.s.Ka.2.47cd-53 = A.h.Ka.2.41-48.

Three verses (2.54-56) are added. 31

A.s.Ka.2.57-58 = A.h.Ka.2.49-51ab.

The next verse (2.59) is borrowed from the Carakasamhitā. 32

A.s.Ka.2.60-64 = A.h.Ka.2.51cd-57ab.

Ten verses are added (2.65–74cd). 33

A.s.Ka.2.74ef = A.k.Ka.2.57cd.

The next six verses (2.75-80) replace A.h.Ka.2.58-61ab.

A.s.Ka.2.81-82 = A.h.Ka.2.61cd-62.

Chapter three (vamanavirecanavyāpatsiddhi),³⁴ corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (Ka.3), is mainly in prose (3.1–29), with a number of verses (3.30–42) at the end.

The subjects dealt with are: the procedure to be adhered to when emetics have an adverse, purgative effect; repetition of the treatment with correction of the dosage, etc. (3.2); 35 the proper measures to be taken when purgatives have an adverse effect (3.3); 36 patients who require a large dose of an emetic or purgative (3.4);³⁷ repetition of the treatment when an ineffective emetic or purgative has been administered (3.5);³⁸ the treatment of patients whose dosas are accompanied by āma (3.6);³⁹ the procedures to be adopted in particular cases of unsuccessful treatment (3.7-8); ⁴⁰ the disorders caused by a strong drug, administered to patients unsuitable to this type of therapy; the treatment of these disorders (3.9–10);⁴¹ dietary rules for patients with complications (3. 11);⁴² the effects of too small a dose in patients requiring a larger one (3.12);⁴³ the appropriate procedure in this type of cases (3.13);⁴⁴ a patient who, after the intake of a purgative, either strains too much or suppresses his urges, will develop the disorder called pravāhikā; its symptoms; its treatment is like that of parisrava (3.14); 45 suppression of the natural urges in general, after ingestion of a purgative, leads to hrdayopasarana; the symptoms of this disorder (3.15);⁴⁶ its treatment (3.16);⁴⁷ the disorders arising from an overdose of a dry (rūksa) drug; their treatment (3.17);⁴⁸ the bad effects of too large a dose of a sharp (tiksna) purgative; the treatment required (3.18); more therapeutic measures (3.19);⁴⁹ treatment of the effects of the excessive administration of an emetic (3.20);⁵⁰ the treatment of vomiting and eructations after excessive administration of an emetic (3.21);⁵¹ the treatment of retraction of the tongue (jihvāpraveśa) under the same circumstances (3.22);⁵² the treatment of a protruded (nirgatā) tongue, ⁵³ protruded (vyāvrtta) eyes, and loss of consciousness ⁵⁴ (3.23); the treatment of an overdose of purgatives (3.24); the treatment of a prolapsed (nihsrta) rectum, ⁵⁵ obstruction of the organs of speech (vaksanga), 56 etc. (3.25); after too large a dose of emetics and purgatives a fluid may be emitted which consists of blood (iīvarakta) or raktapitta; ways to distinguish between the two (3.26);⁵⁷ the treatment to be applied when blood appears (3.27);⁵⁸ the general treatment of mishaps due to overadministration of emetics and purgatives (3.28); parallels between mishaps due to emetics and those due to purgatives: parikartikā due to emetics is like kaṇṭhakṣaṇana due to purgatives, kaphapraseka due to emetics is like adhaḥparisrava due to purgatives, śuṣkodgāra due to emetics is like adhaḥpravāhaṇa due to purgatives (3.29).⁵⁹

The chapter ends with a series of verses dealing with: the characteristics of drugs that will fail when administered (3.30);⁶⁰ contra-indications for emesis and purgation (3.31);⁶¹ the treatment of patients who throw up a purgative (3.32); indications for the prescription of warm water (3.33); sudation is the treatment of choice when an emetic or purgative fails in making the dosa(s) move (3.34); the treatment of eructations and the absence of the urge to evacuate after the ingestion of a purgative (3.35); the characteristics appearing when a drug is obstructed by kapha (3.36); the treatment to be applied when a purgative is digested or comes up (3.37); the characteristics indicating digestion of the drug; the choice of another drug (3.38); the signs manifesting themselves when the drug is covered by kapha; the choice of an alternative (3.39); the twelve mishaps (vyāpad) which may occur due to faultive application of emetics and purgatives: pratikūlā gatih, pāka, grathitatva, gaurava, dosotkleśa, severe ādhmāna, parikarta, parisrava, pravāhikā, hrdgrahaṇa, sarvagātraparigraha, and dhātusrava (3.40–41); other mishaps should be treated along the same lines (3.42).

Chapter four (bastikalpa), corresponding to the first part of the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ka.4), is entirely in verse.

A.s.Ka.4.2-11 = A.h.Ka.4.1-10. Two recipes for a clyster are added (4.12-13).⁶² A.s.Ka.4.14 = A.h.Ka.4.11. A.s.Ka.4.15-17 describe a formula. ⁶³ A.s.Ka.4.18-20 = A.h.Ka.4.17-19ab. A series of clysters are added (4.21-39).⁶⁴ A.h.Ka.4.19cd is absent from the Samgraha. A.s.Ka.4.40-43 = A.h.Ka.4.20-24ab. Two recipes for clysters are added (4.44-45). ⁶⁵ A.s.Ka.4.46 = A.h.Ka.4.24cd-25ab. One recipe is added (4.47). ⁶⁶ A.s.Ka.4.48-53 = A.h.Ka.4.68-73.

Chapter five (siddhabastikalpa), partly corresponding to the second half of the bastikalpa chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Ka.4), is entirely in verse.

A.s.Ka.5.1-15 = A.h.Ka.4.26cd-43ab. A series of recipes are added (5.16-23ab). A.s.Ka.5.23cd = A.h.Ka.4.53ab. More recipes follow (5.24-41).⁶⁷ A.s.Ka.5.42-50 = A.h.Ka.4.54-62ab. One recipe is added (5.51). A.s.Ka.5.52-56 = A.h.Ka.4.62cd-67.

The last part of the chapter begins with Agniveśa questioning Punarvasu on the fruits most suitable for being used in clysters (5.57). Punarvasu answers these questions (5.58–60). Next, Agniveśa and other pupils want to have information about the way clysters remove the doṣas from the body (5.61–62). Punarvasu gives an exposition on this subject. He declares that vāta is the main cause of all diseases; the accumulation and dispersal of faecal matter, kapha, pitta, and other impurities is brought about by vāta; clysters are active against this doṣa and therefore the most powerful remedies; the administration of clysters constitutes half the art of medicine, or, according to some, the whole of it (5.63–66). This thesis is illustrated by the various actions of the five kinds of vāta (5.67–72).

The concluding verse (5.73) stresses again the prominent place of clysters in medical treatment.

Chapter six (bastivyāpatsiddhi), corresponding to part of the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (Ka.5), is entirely in verse.

The opening verse enumerates the six disorders caused by the deficient use of clysters and the same number brought about by their excessive administration. The first series consists of: vibandha, gaurava, ādhmāna, śiroruj, vāhana, ⁷¹ and ūrdhvagā; the second series consists of: kukṣiśūla, aṅgaruj, hidhmā, hṛtpīḍā, kartana, and srava (6.2). ⁷²

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A.s.Ka.6.3–7 = A.h.Ka.5.1–6ab.

Five verses are added (6.8–12).<sup>73</sup>

A.s.Ka.6.13–15 = A.h.Ka.5.6cd–10ab.

Six verses are added (6.16–21).<sup>74</sup>

A.s.Ka.6.22–32 = A.h.Ka.5.10cd–23ab.

Fifteen verses are added (6.33–47).<sup>75</sup>

A.s.Ka.6.48–49 = A.h.Ka.5.23cd–25ab.

Two verses and a half are added (6.50–52ab).<sup>76</sup>

A.s.Ka.6.52cd–54 = A.h.Ka.5.25cd–28ab.

A long series of verses are added (6.55–75).<sup>77</sup>
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Chapter seven (snehādivyāpatsiddhi), corresponding to the second part of the bastivyāpatsiddhi chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Ka.5), is in verse.

The chapter begins with an enumeration of the eight mishaps (vyāpad) which may occur on the administration of a snehabasti (oleaginous enema): coverage by vāta, pitta, kapha, and too much food or faeces, administration on an empty stomach, swelling of the anal region (śūnapāyu), and administration in the presence of āma (āmadatta) (7. 2). 78

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A.s.Ka.7.3-17 = A.h.Ka.5.29-45ab.
Seven verses are added (7.18-24).<sup>79</sup>
A.s.Ka.7.25-26 = A.h.Ka.5.45cd-48ab.
One verse is added (7.27).<sup>80</sup>
A.s.Ka.7.28 = A.h.Ka.5.48cd-49ab.
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Three verses are added (7.29-31). 81

A.s.Ka.7.32-35 = A.h.Ka.5.50-54.

The remaining part of the chapter (7.36–49) consists of additions, dealing with: eight things to be avoided by patients treated with clysters: uccairbhāṣya (speaking loudly), too much remaining seated (atyāṣyā), too much riding (atiyāṇayāṇa) and walking (aticaṅkramaṇa), eating before the previous meal has been digested (ajīrṇabhojaṇa), eating unhealthy foods (ahitānṇa),sleeping by day, and sexual intercourse; the disorders resulting from infringement of these rules; the treatment of these disorders (7.36–43); patients habitually restraining their natural urges should get a suppository (phalavarti) before the administration of a clyster (7.44); ⁸² clysters suitable to these patients (7.45–46ab); ⁸³ recipes for clysters (7.46cd–48); ⁸⁴ non-unctuous clysters (nirūha) are excellent in the treatment of old people and children (7.49). ⁸⁵

Chapter eight (bheşajakalpa), partly in prose, partly in verse, corresponds to the dravyakalpa chapter of the *Hrdaya* (Ka.6).

The first part of this chapter deals with: the characteristics of the type of country and soil most suitable to the collection of medicinal substances (bhūmiparīkṣā) (8.2): 86 the characteristics of areas with a predominance of one of the five mahābhūtas; 87 areas with a predominance of water and earth produce substances suitable to purgation and bṛṇḥaṇa; emetics are found in areas with a predominance of fire, air and ākāśa; areas possessing qualities of all five mahābhūtas produce substances acting in both ways; appeasing (śamana) drugs are found in areas with a predominance of ākāśa (8.3); 88 the characteristics of plants suitable to be collected; 89 the seasons for the collection of particular plant parts (8.4); 90 a divergent opinion on this subject: saumya plants are to be collected in saumya seasons, āgneya plants in āgneya seasons (8.5); 91 the way medicinal plants ought to be collected; ritual prescriptions; the preservation of the drugs (8.6); 92 preparations with milk should not be preserved for longer than a year; 93 preparations containing pippalī, vidaṅga, guḍa, honey or ghee should be used when old 94 (8.7).

A.s.Ka.8.8 = A.h.Ka.6.7

The chapter proceeds with: the five types of kaṣāya: niryāsa, 95 kalka, niryūha, 96 śīta, and phāṇṭa; their strength decreases in the mentioned order (8.9); 97 the characteristics of these preparations (8.10); 98 the way a kvātha should be prepared (8.11); the preparation of drugs containing milk or another fluid (8.12); the preparation of a śīta and a phāṇṭa (8.13); the preparation of a drug requires that the strength of the disease and of the patient, as well as the tastes, vīrya, etc., of the ingredients, should be taken into consideration (8.14).99

A.s.Ka.8.15 = A.h.Ka.6.12.

The average dose of a niryāsa is four pala; it is a karṣa for a kalka and a cūrṇa; three pala of a fluid should be added to a kalka or cūrṇa (8.16); 100 a niryūha should be prepared by adding half a prastha water to a pala of the drug and boiling it until a quarter of the original quantity remains (8.17); 101 one pala of the drug and six, respectively four, pala water are required for the preparation of a sīta, respectively phāṇṭa (8.18); 102 the ratios of the ingredients for the preparation of a sneha (8.19).

A.s.Ka.8.20-21 = A.h.Ka.6.15-16.

More rules for the preparation of a sneha (snehapāka) (8.22-23). 103

A.s.Ka.8.24 = A.h.Ka.6.18cd-19ab.

The description of the method for preserving a sneha (8.25).

The system of weights and measures is the next subject (8.26). 104

A.s.Ka.8.28-29 = A.h.Ka.6.23cd-24ab.

When a recipe does not specify the part of the plant to be used, one should take its roots (8.30). 105

A.s.Ka.8.31-32 = A.h.Ka.6.19cd-21.

A.s.Ka.8.33 = A.h.Ka.6.29cd-30.

Chapter 6 Uttarasthāna

Chapter one (bālopacaraṇīya) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (U.1). It is mainly in verse, with a number of prose passages in its first part.

The subjects dealt with in the first part are: a child, just after being born, should be cleansed by rubbing it with a mixture of salt and ghee (1.2); ¹ next, it should be sprinkled with balātaila, which is helpful in overcoming the difficulties caused by the process of birth; ² stones should be struck against one another at the root of its ears ³ (1.3); when it still does not move, one should fan it with a winnowing basket (sūrpa); ⁴ a mantra should be muttered in its right ear ⁵ (1.4–6); the umbilical cord should be cut and tied to its neck; the stump has to be sprinkled with kuṣṭhataila (1.7); ⁶ the fluids for bathing the child (1.8); ⁷ cleansing of the lips, tongue, palate and throat; a cotton swab soaked in a fatty substance should be placed on the head (1.9); ⁸ the first ritual feeding (1.10); ⁹ making the child vomit remnants of the amniotic fluid (garbhodaka) (1.11); ¹⁰ then the jātakarman should be performed according to the prājāpatya prescriptions (1.12). ¹¹

A.s.U.1.13 = A.h.U.1.11cd-12ab.

The chapter proceeds with: the substances for feeding the child during the first three days (1.14); 12 feeding it on the fourth day; the beginning of breast-feeding on this day (1.15); ¹³ the ears of the child should be covered daily with a piece of cloth (plota) soaked in a fatty substance (1.16); ¹⁴ the bedding of the child; a water jar (udakumbha), over which a mantra has been muttered, should be placed near the door of the bedroom (1.17); 15 the child should be fanned with the branches of particular trees; 16 the same branches are to be placed all around the room; ¹⁷ grains should be scattered on the floor of the room and outside; ¹⁸ a bali should be offered twice daily (1.18); ¹⁹ substances for fumigation; a brāhmana, versed in the Atharvaveda, should perform a śāntikarman during ten successive days; the Māyūrī, Mahāmāyūrī and Āryāratnaketudhārinī should be recited twice daily (1.19);²⁰ a bag with magical herbs should be attached to the beam above the door, to the child's neck and that of its mother, and to the pillow of the bed;²¹ the mantras of Āryāparnaśabarī and Āryāparājita should be written down with gorocanā (on a piece of bark or paper) (1.20); ²² a pestle should be laid across the threshold of the door; a fire has to be kept burning day and night; devoted women and female friends should remain awake; the house should be full of rejoicing people (1.21); ²³ the selection of a wet-nurse (1.22); ²⁴ testing the breastmilk of a wet-nurse (1.23); ²⁵ the way in which the wet-nurse should begin breastfeeding the child (1.24);²⁶ disorders arising in the child when the breasts of the wet-nurse are filled with too much milk (1. 25); ²⁷ causes leading to a ninsufficient secretion of milk or its absence; galactagogues (1.26); ²⁸ women whose milk is unsuitable (1.27).²⁹

A.s.U.1.28 = A.h.U.1.21.

The first bath of the mother after delivery (snānotsava) should take place on the tenth or twelfth day; 30 the father should give a name to the child on one of these days (1.29), or on the hundredth day or after the completion of the first year; auspicious substances to be worn by the child (1.30); 31 rules for naming a child (1.31–33). 32

A.s.U.1.34 = A.h.U.1.24

Requirements for comfortable surroundings of the child are described (1.35-36ab),³³

A.s.U.1.36cd-37cd = A.h.U.1.25-26ab.

An ardhaśloka mentioning substances for fumigation is added (1.37ef), ³⁴ followed by the advice not to wake up a sleeping child suddenly (1.38); ³⁵ its mouth should be cleansed carefully (1.39).

A.s.U.1.40-41 = A.h.U.1.26cd-28ab.

Disorders are dealt with which may arise when the breasts show particular defects (1.42–43ab); ³⁶ drinking the breastmilk of a pregnant woman leads to the disease called pārigarbhika ³⁷ (1.43cd).

A.s.U.1.44ab = A.h.U.1.20ab.

A.s.U.1.44cd corresponds to A.h.U.1.20cd.

The child should leave the room where it remained after birth (sūtikāgāra) for the first time in the fourth month in order to honour Agni, Skanda and the other gods (1. 45). ³⁸ In the fifth month it should be made to sit on the earth, while bali offerings are made in the four directions of the sky (1.46); a mantra to be employed on this occasion (1.47–48); after the performance of this ritual, the child should be made to sit up daily; after sitting for a while, its hips, etc., should be rubbed (1.49); ³⁹ in the sixth month, solid food is given for the first time (annaprāśana); ⁴⁰ the child should be weaned gradually (1.50–51ab). ⁴¹

The next section is concerned with piercing the earlobes.

A.s.U.1.51cd-58cd = A.h.U.1.28cd-36.

The after-treatment is described⁴² and contra-indications for elongation of the lobes (1.58ef-59);⁴³ beneficial effects of well-pierced ears and wearing ornaments in them (1.60);⁴⁴ a procedure to be employed when elongation of the lobes fails,⁴⁵ in particular in women (1.61); complications which may follow piercing; their treatment; piercing should be repeated after healing (1.62–63c);⁴⁶ trying to elongate the lobes too quickly may result in tearing them; repair is then necessary, as described in the chapter on the treatment of ear diseases (1.63d–64).

During the first year of life a child should, outside of the house, not look upon brilliant objects, fire, etc. (1.65).⁴⁷

A.s.U.1.66 = A.h.U.1.37.

Methods are described which may be helpful in weaning (1.67).⁴⁸

A.s.U.1.68-69 = A.h.U.1.38-39.

The treatment of children who get very hungry after weaning (1.70);⁴⁹ good and bad properties of those in charge of children (1.71–72).⁵⁰

A.s.U.1.73-74 = A.h.U.1.40-41.

The characteristics of a suitable playground (krīdābhūmi) are described (1.75–76),⁵¹ followed by the right education (1.77–78ab).⁵² The child should be bathed, anointed and massaged daily; recipes for the substances to be employed (1.78cd–82). Useful medicated foods and drinks (1.83–85), an oil for rubbing the head (1.86), electuaries (1.87–90ab).⁵³

A.s.U.1.90cd-91 = A.h.U.1.42-43ab.

The sārasvataghṛta is described (1.92–96ab), ⁵⁴ followed by two electuaries (1.96cd–98), and eleven more preparations of this type (1.99–100), which are also useful in adults (1.101ab). ⁵⁵

Eating of earth (nirdbhakṣaṇa) should be prevented; disorders resulting from this habit (1.101cd-102). Teeth cleaning is not allowed until the teeth are firmly set (1.103). A child protected in the way described will not be attacked by grahas (1.104).⁵⁶

Chapter two (bālāmayapratiṣedha) corresponds to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (U.2). Its first part (2.1-24) is in prose, the remaining part (2.25-148) in verse. ⁵⁷

The subjects dealt with are: the suitable food for children in the ksīrapa, annāda and ubhayavrtti stages (2.2);58 corrupted milk gives rise to many diseases in children (2.3); ⁵⁹ the characteristics of milk corrupted by vata (2.4), ⁶⁰ pitta (2.5), ⁶¹ kapha (2. 6); 62 these corruptions lead to disorders with characteristics due to the dosa involved (2.7); 63 the place repeatedly touched by a child or the place which it does not suffer being touched points to a local painful sensation (2.8); 64 signs pointing to a disorder in a particular region or organ (2.9);65 dependent on the particular disorder, the wet-nurse should be treated with samana or sodhana measures (2.10);66 the treatment required when the milk is corrupted by vata in general (2.11)⁶⁷ and when particular characteristics due to vāta are present in it (2.12); ⁶⁸ the same regarding corruption by pitta (2.13⁶⁹ and 14)⁷⁰ and kapha (2.15⁷¹ and 16⁷²); the treatment required when more than one dosa is involved (2.16); 73 the description of the disease called ksīrālasaka, due to all three dosas (2.17);⁷⁴ its treatment (2.18);⁷⁵ the coming through of the teeth causes all kinds of disorders; disorders arising in particular due to this cause (2.19); ⁷⁶ the teeth begin to come through after the eighth month in long-lived children, after the fourth month in the other ones; coming through too early prevents a full development of the dhatus (2.20); teeth develop from bone tissue and marrow; they fall out at a later age and are replaced because bone tissue and marrow are not yet fully developed in young children; they cannot be replaced by new ones in adults (2.21); physiological explanations for the fact that teeth lost by an accident or disease do not grow again (2.22); a description of the processes leading to breaking through of the teeth and the ensuing disorders (2.23); causes for the non-appearance of the teeth (2.24).

A.s.U.2.25-28 = A.h.U.2.28-32ab.

A.s.U.2.29-30 = A.h.U.2.33cd-35ab.

Prescriptions against the grathita type of disorder of the breastmilk are added (2. 31–32).

A.s.U.2.33 = A.h.U.2.35cd-36ab.

An ardhaśloka is added (2.34ab).

A.s.U.2.34cd-35 = A.h.U.2.36cd-38ab.

Recipes are added against fever due to vāta (2.36–40) or pitta (2.41–42), āmātisāra and raktātisāra (2.43), diseases of the head (2.44–45), diseases of the eyes (2.46–47), various diseases associated with pitta (2.48–50), and fever due to kapha (2.51–53).

A.s.U.2.54-55 = A.h.U.2.38cd-40.

The formula of a medicated ghee is added (2.56-58).

A.s. U.2.59-61 = A.h.U.2.41-44ab.

The milk teeth are usually replaced by the second teeth in the eighth year (2.62).

A.s.U.2.63-66 = A.h.U.2.44cd-48ab.

Some prescriptions are added (2.67–68).

A.s.U.2.69-74 = A.h.U.2.48cd-54ab.

Some prescriptions are added to the series against śoṣa in children (2.75-77).

Recipes against kāsa, śvāsa, chardi and other disorders follow (2.78-84). 78

A.s.U.2.85-87 = A.h.U.2.58cd-61.

A series of prescriptions against various diseases are added (2.88-93ab).

A.s.U.2.93cd-94 = A.h.U.2.62-63ab.

Rituals are described (prāyaścitta) to ward off evil (2.95-96).

The aetiology and symptomatology of pārigarbhika, also called paribhava, are dealt with next (2.97–98),⁷⁹ followed by its treatment with drugs (2.99–100). Causes of conditions resembling pārigarbhika and their treatment are discussed (2.101–102), and the treatment of children with paribhava who are very hungry (2.103–105). These children should be bathed in a particular fluid too (2.106ab); when even this is not helpful, a particular ritual is recommended (2.106cd–108).

The ritual and medicinal treatment of children whose hair gets twisted (jaṭībhūta) and who show some other, associated, symptoms is then described (2.109–111).

The following verses are concerned with the symptoms and treatment of a disease called parvānuplava (2.112-114).⁸⁰

A.s.U.2.115-119 = A.h.U.2.63cd-68.

Mastulungakṣaya and its treatment are dealt with (2.120).81

A.s.U.2.121-127 = A.h.U.2.69-75.

A prescription against the disease called anāma is added (2.128), followed by prescriptions to be employed when the child refuses to drink (2.129), cries, or is frightened (2.130), when the stump of the cord does not fall off (2.131), when the navel is swollen (unnatā) or inflamed (pāka) (2.132–135), or when disorders are present due to an improper cutting of the cord (2.136).

A disease caused by not vomiting the amniotic fluid is described; the treatment of this disease, called ulbaka, sahaja, or ambupūrņa (2.137–143). The treatment of a disorder in which the skin has a burnt (paridagdha) appearance; the treatment of pāṇduroga (2.144–145).

A.s.U.2.146-147 = A.h.U.2.76-77.

Since diseases in children are also brought about by hidden grahas, one should always have recourse to treatment of the daivayuktyāśraya type (2.148).

Chapter three (bālagrahavi jīānīya), corresponding to the first part of the bālagrahapratisedha chapter of the *Hrdaya* (U.3), is entirely in verse.

A.s.U.3.2-3 = A.h.U.3.1-3ab.

The grahas mentioned, who can assume any shape at will (kāmarūpin), waited upon Skanda devotedly; Skanda, as a protector of children, became the foremost among them (3.4); when Skanda had grown up and assumed the leadership, Rudra was favourably disposed towards these grahas, who humbly asked him for a living (3.5); he requested them to take away the wellbeing and health of children living in the house of parents who do not honour the forefathers and deities (3.6–7); therefore, on the request of Śūlin (= Rudra), these grahas attack children, usually when they are asleep and on parvan days ⁸² (3.8–10); when taking possession of a child, they can only be observed by the pure eyes of science (śāstracakṣus), like gandharvas who enter the bodies of women (3.11). ⁸³

A.s.U.3.12-35ab = A.h.U.3.3cd-29.

A.s.U.3.35cd is added.

A.s.U.3.35ef-46 = A.h.U.3.30-41ab.

Chapter four (balagrahapratisedha), corresponding to the second part of the chapter of the same title (U.3) of the *Hrdaya*, is in verse; prose is found at A.s.U.4.43 and between 4.68 and 69.

A.s.U.4.2-14ab = A.h.U.3.41cd-54.

A.s.U.4.14cd corresponds to A.h.U.3.58.

Magical rituals are described, accompanied by the tying of an amulet (pratisarā) on the child; the Aparājitā vidyā should be written with gorocanā on a piece of birch bark; many magical herbs are mentioned, useful in warding off grahas by tying them round the neck of the child (4.15–21). A very long mantra, to be recited on the occasion, follows (4.22–35).

Substances suitable as a bali offering are enumerated (4.36–39ab); places and times for such a bali are indicated (4.39cd-40). A mandala should be drawn, with Bhūtapati in the centre; ⁸⁴ the bali should be offered and a mantra muttered; thus the child should be protected (ātmarakṣā) (4.41–43).

A second mantra has to follow this ritual (4.44–49), and a third, called kulavidyā (4.50–60). So Prescriptions are given for a fire offering (homa) to be performed after the bali (4.61–62). Finally, rules are given for the recitation of the agnidanda mantra and this mantra itself (4.63–69).

Particular characteristics of the sacrificial fire indicate that either health will result from the ritual or disease (4.70–72).

Chapter five (snapanādhyāya), on a ritual bath of the child and the woman who nurses it (stanyamātar), written in verse, has no corresponding part in the *Hṛdaya*. 86

The subjects are: places suitable for a bath (5.2-3); 87 suitable times are the parvan days of particular months (5.4); 88 prescriptions for the drawing of a mandala (5.5-6); 89 deities and their attributes, to be placed within the mandala (5.7-12); 90 instructions for making fifteen objects called kila or sanku (a pointed stake); six made of iron, seven

made of three (other) metals (loha), and two of khadira wood, sprinkled over with sandal water (5.13); the requirements for eight, sixteen or thirty-two pitchers (ghata), 91 painted in diverse colours, to be placed at the four doors (dvāra) of the mandala (5. 14-15);⁹² substances to be put inside these pitchers (5.16);⁹³ earth from a number of particular places should be collected; a kindled fire should be fetched; other items necessary consist of firewood from ksīrivrksa trees, fragrant substances, ghee, honey, etc. (5.17-19); the child and the nurse are made to sit down in the centre of the mandala on a particular type of seat (pītha), made of udumbara or palāśa wood, on which darbha grass has been scattered (5.20); 94 the physician should then make an offering into the fire, which is placed in the northern part of the mandala; 95 this sacrifice has to be accompanied by a mantra belonging to the bali for Skanda (5.21); requirements for the physician in charge of the ritual; he should wash the child, with the water contained in the several pitchers successively 96 and with the kinds of earth collected, mixed with other substances (5.22-23c); the mantras which accompany these actions; 97 four pitchers are mentioned, associated with a particular deity: (1) Vijaya, associated with Indra (5,24-28), (2) Vaijayanta, associated with Yama (5,29-34), (3) Jayanta, associated with Varuna (5.35-40), (4) Aparājita, associated with Dhanada (= Kubera) (5.41-45); Brahmā and the waters are invoked (5.46); a series of mantras follow, invoking numerous deities, etc. (5.47-60); 98 rules for the child's conduct and diet after the bath (5.61); the effects of the ritual (5.62-63).

The chapter ends with the recipe of a decoction, beneficial when used for a child's bath (5.64-65), ⁹⁹

Chapter six (pratyekagrahapratişedha), mainly written in prose, has no parallel in the *Hṛdaya*

The subjects dealt with are: measures to be employed against afflictions by Skanda: pradehas, pariseka, abhyanga (6.2), 100 abhyanga (6.3), 101 medicated ghees (6.4-5), 102 fumigations (6.6), ¹⁰³ roots of plants to be tied around the neck or on the head (6.7), ¹⁰⁴ a bali offering (6.8), ¹⁰⁵ accompanied by a mantra (6.9-11), ¹⁰⁶ worship of the fire and a ritual bath (6.12), 107 accompanied by a mantra (6.13-17); 108 measures against Viśākha: pradehas, 109 pariseka, abhyanga (6.18), 110 medicated ghees (6.19), 111 fumigations and plants to be worn as charms (6.20), ¹¹² a bali and a bath (6.21), ¹¹³ accompanied by a mantra (6.22); 114 measures against Naigamesa: pradehas, pariseka, abhyanga (6.23), 115 ghees, fumigation, plants to be worn as charms (6.24), 116 a bali and a bath (6.25), 117 accompanied by a mantra (6.26); 118 measures against Śvagraha: pradehas, pariseka (6.27), abhyanga, ghees, fumigation (6.28), plants to be worn as charms (6. 29), a bali and a bath (6.30), accompanied by a mantra (6.31); measures against Pitrgraha: pradehas, abhyanga (6.32), pariseka, abhyanga (6.33), ghees (6.34), an errhine, a lepa (6.35), furnigation, plants to be worn as charms (6.36), a bali and a bath (6. 37), accompanied by a mantra (6.38); measures against Śakunī: pradehas, abhyanga (6.39), 119 pariseka, 120 abhyanga (6.40), a cūrna against inflatnmation of the mouth, 121 ghees, ¹²² furnigations ¹²³ (6.41), plants to be worn as charms (6.42), ¹²⁴ a bali and a bath (6.43), ¹²⁵ accompanied by a mantra (6.44-45); ¹²⁶ measures against Pūtanā: pradehas, pariseka¹²⁷ (6.46), abhyanga, ¹²⁸ ghees, ¹²⁹ fumigation, ¹³⁰ plants to be worn as charms (6.47), ¹³¹ a bali and a bath (6.48), ¹³² accompanied by amantra (6.49–50); ¹³³ measures against Śītapūtanā: pradehas, plants to be worn as charms, ¹³⁴ pariseka ¹³⁵ (6.51), abhyariga, ¹³⁶ a ghee (6.52), another ghee, ¹³⁷ furnigation (6.53), ¹³⁸ a bali and a bath (6.54), ¹³⁹ accompanied by a mantra (6.55); 140 measures against Andhapūtanā; pradehas, 141 pariseka, ¹⁴² abhyanga ¹⁴³ (6.56), ghees (6.57), ¹⁴⁴ fumigation (6.58), ¹⁴⁵ plants to be worn as charms (6.59), ¹⁴⁶ a bali and a bath (6.60), ¹⁴⁷ accompanied by a mantra (6.61); ¹⁴⁸ measures against Mukhamanditikā: lepas, pariseka, 149 abhyanga 150 (6.62), ghees (6. 63), ¹⁵¹ fumigation ¹⁵² and other measures, substances to be worn as charms, ¹⁵³ treatment of the child's mother (6.64), a bali and a bath (6.65), ¹⁵⁴ accompanied by a mantra (6.66); ¹⁵⁵ measures against Revatī: a pradeha, ¹⁵⁶ pariseka ¹⁵⁷ (6.67), abhyanga, ¹⁵⁸ a ghee, 159 fumigation, 160 a lepa (6.68), a bali and a bath (6.69), 161 accompanied by a mantra (6.70); 162 measures against Śuskarevatī: these are the same as those against Skanda, apart from the fumigation; massage, an oil for the eyes (6.71), a lepa, fumigation (6.72), a bali and a bath (6.73), accompanied by a mantra (6.74); accompanying disorders and complications should be managed with the measures against children's diseases (6.75).

Chapter seven (bhūtavi jāānīya), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya(U.4), is in prose, with the exception of two verses at the end.

The subjects are: 163 the eighteen lords of the bhūtas (bhūtādhipati); gods (sura), Asuras, Gandharvas, Uragas (= Nāgas), Yaksas, Brahmarāksasas, Rāksasas, Piśācas, Pretas, Kūsmāndas, Kākhordas, Maukiranas, Vetālas, Pitars, Rsis, gurus, vrddhas, and Siddhas; 164 their attendants and the attendants of these attendants are innumerable, 165 thus making the world of the bhūtas infinite (7.2); bhūtas in general are eager for food: they roam about at midnight, are dreadful, and feed upon flesh, blood and fat (7.3); 166 on account of their living together with gods, Asuras, etc., their contact with them and the adoption of the same behaviours, the bhūtas share the same names (7.4); ¹⁶⁷ the cause of their entering (anupravesa) consists primarily of errors of judgment (prajñāparādha) during this or a former existence (7.5); 168 the consequences of prajñāparādha, leading to injury by a bhūta (7.6); ¹⁶⁹ likewise, persons suffering from unmāda or apasmāra, fever, or other diseases, particularly persons with sores, the more so when they smell after pus, blood or fat, are liable to an attack (7.7); 170 each class of bhūtas approaches at a preferred period of time in order to hurt human beings (7.8); times. places and occasions likely to attract bhūtas (7.9); ¹⁷¹ the specific ways for the various groups of bhūtas to exert their influence on human beings (7.10); ¹⁷² the periods of time¹⁷³ and the types of persons ¹⁷⁴ preferred for their attack by each group of bhūtas (7.11–15); the prodromes (7.16); ¹⁷⁵ the characteristic features of someone afflicted by a devagraha (7.17); 176 the features specific for affliction by Īśvara, Indra, Dhanada (= Kubera), Varuna (7.18); ¹⁷⁷ the characteristic features of someone afflicted by an Asura (7.19), ¹⁷⁸ a Gandharva (7.20), ¹⁷⁹ Uraga (7.21), ¹⁸⁰ Yaksa (7.22); ¹⁸¹ features specific for the Yaksas called Manivara and Vikata (7.23); 182 the features indicating affliction by a Brahmarāksasa; 183 the specific features due to the being called Yajñasena (7.24); 184 the features pointing to affliction by a Rāksasa, 185 features specific for Viśākha, Sangama, ¹⁸⁶ Vidyunmālin ¹⁸⁷ and Virūpāksa ¹⁸⁸ (7.25); ¹⁸⁹ the features characteristic of an affliction by a Piśāca, ¹⁹⁰ by the beings called Kaśmala, ¹⁹¹ Kuśa ¹⁹² or Nistejas, ¹⁹³ by a preta ¹⁹⁴ (7.26); the features characteristic of a Kūṣmāṇḍa ¹⁹⁵ (7.27), Kākhorda (7. 28), ¹⁹⁶ Maukiraṇa (7.29), ¹⁹⁷ Vetāla (7.30), ¹⁹⁸ Pitṛgraha (7.31), ¹⁹⁹ guru, vṛddha or Siddha (7.32), ²⁶⁰

A.s.U.7.33 = A.h.U.4.1. A.s.U.7.34 = A.h.U.4.44.

Chapter eight (bhūtapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.5), is entirely in verse.

A.s.U.8.2-9 = A.h.U.5.1-9.

Three verses are added, giving prescriptions for an earline $(8.10)^{201}$ and two vartis to be used as an anijana for the eyes (8.11-12). 202

A.s.U.8.13-60 = A.h.U.5.10-53.

Chapter nine (unmādapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.6), is partly in prose (9.1–10), partly in verse (9.11–65).

The subjects dealt with in prose are: the six types of unmāda; 203 the etymology of unmāda 204 (9.2); the aetiological factors (9.3); 205 the pathogenesis (9.4); 206 the prodromes; 207 the symptoms arise immediately after the prodromal stage²⁰⁸ (9.5); the general symptoms (9.6–7); 209 the symptoms of unmāda due to vāta (9.8), 210 pitta (9.9), 211 and kapha (9.10), 212

A.s.U.9.11-16 = A.h.U.6.14-20ab.

One verse is added, stating that śairīṣataila is recommended as a sneha in unmāda due to vāta, mahākalyāṇaka(ghṛta) in unmāda due to pitta, and pañcagavya(ghṛta) in unmāda due to kapha (9.17).

A.s.U.9.18-34 = A.h.U.6.20cd-38ab.

A series of additional verses follow: the recipe of lasunagh ta and its actions (9.35–37); ²¹³ rules for the use of this ghee or, as an alternative, pure old ghee (9.38); ²¹⁴ other preparations to be employed (9.39); ²¹⁵ a medicated oil (9.40–41); recipes for errhines and an ianas (9.42–43). ²¹⁶

A.s.U.9.44-45 = A.h.U.6.38cd-40

An added verse gives the recipe for an $a\bar{n}$ jana, useful in human beings and in cattle (9.46). 217

A.s.U.9.47-65 = A.h.U.6.41-60.

Chapter ten (apasmārapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.7), is entirely in verse.

A.s. $U.10.2-16 = A.h.U.7.1-17ab.^{218}$

Three verses are added, dealing with substances useful for emesis and purgation (10.17), āsthāpana (10.18), anuvāsana, abhyaiga, and in errhines (10.18–19).

A.s.U.10.20-26 = A.h.U.7.17cd-24ab.

The formula of śairīṣataila and its actions follow (10.27-37). 219

A.s.U.10.38-41 = A.h.U.7.24cd-28ab.

A ghee against apasmāra due to pitta is added (1 0.42). 220

A.s.U.10.43-46 = A.h.U.7.28cd-32.

Seven verses are added: the recipe of a varti to be used as an añjana (10.47-48), 221 two more añjanas, a fumigation (10.49-50), 222 an oil for abhyanga (10.51), another oil (10.52-53), 223

A.s.U.10.54 = A.h.U.7.33.

Five verses are added: the recipes for a plaster and a fumigation (10.55-56); ²²⁴ substances to be used for massage and pariṣeka (10.57); the beneficial effects of these treatments (10.58); the treatment of cases of apasmāra, in which bhūtas are involved too (10.59). ²²⁵

A.s.U.10.60-63 = A.h.U.7.34-37.

Mahāsneha, as a drink, used for abhyanga, or in a clyster, is an excellent remedy for afflictions caused by grahas, for insanity (vibhrāntacetas), and epilepsy (vibhrāntasmṛti) (10.64).

Chapter eleven (vartmarogavij \bar{n} a \bar{n} ya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya (U.8).

Chapter twelve (vartmarogapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.9), is partly in prose (12.1–6, 8–24), partly in verse (12.7, 25–36).

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of krcchrabodha ²²⁶ (12.2–3), ²²⁷ kumbhī-kapitakās (12.4), ²²⁸ pittotkliṣṭa and raktotkliṣṭa (12.5), ²²⁹ pakṣmaśāṭa (12.6–7), ²³⁰ pothakī (12.8–9), ²³¹ kaphotkliṣṭa (12.10), ²³² lagaṇa (12.11), ²³³ utṣangapiṭakā and añjananāmikā (12.12), ²³⁴ the disorders from bisavartman up to bahalavartman (12. 13), ²³⁵ kukūṇaka (12.14–16), ²³⁶ pakṣmoparodha (12.17–22), ²³⁷ upapakṣman (12. 23), ²³⁸ bāhyālaji, and arbuda (12.24). ²³⁹

A.s.U.12.25-36 = A.h.U.9.3-15.

Chapter thirteen (sandhisitäsitarogavi j \bar{n} a \bar{n} iya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya (U.10).

Chapter fourteen (sandhisitāsitarogapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (U.11), is largely in prose (14.1–25; 27–41), while some verses occur, interspersed and at the end (14.26, 42–48).

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of upanāha (14.2), ²⁴⁰ parvanī (14.3), ²⁴¹ pūyālasa (14.4), ²⁴² kṛmigranthi (14.5), ²⁴³ śuktikā (14.6), ²⁴⁴ balāsagrathita (14.7–8), piṣṭaka and balāsagrathita (14.9–10), ²⁴⁵ sirotpāta, sirāharṣa, sirājāla, and arjuna (14. 11–12); ²⁴⁶ the conservative (14.13) ²⁴⁷ and surgical treatment (14.14–15) ²⁴⁸ of the five kinds of arman; special cases, after-treatment, complications, the removal of a remnant of the arman, and treatment of a recurrent arman (14.16–21); ²⁴⁹ the surgical management of sirājāla (14.22) and sirāpiṭakās (14.23); ²⁵⁰ the treatment of śukraka and vranaśukra (14.24–37), ²⁵¹ sirāśukra (14.38–40), ²⁵² and ajakā (14.41). ²⁵³

A.s.U.14.42-48 = A.h.U.11.51cd-58

Chapter fifteen (dṛṣṭirogavijñānīya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya (U.12).

Chapter sixteen (timirapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.13), is entirely in verse.

A.s.U.16.2-16 = A.h.U.13.1-16ab.

The next seven verses (16.17-23) replace A.h.U.13.16cd-19.

A.s.U.16.24-26 = A.h.U.13.20-22

 $A.s.U.16.27-29 = A.h.U.13.28-31ab.^{254}$

Additional verses give the recipes of sukhāvatī varti (16.30–31)²⁵⁵ and dṛṣṭipradā varti (16.32–33),²⁵⁶ three more añjanas²⁵⁷ and variants of them (16.34–36).²⁵⁸

A.s.U.16.37-39 = A.h.U.13.48-50.

Additional verses describe a ghee and an oil (16.40-41). 259

 $A.s.U.16.42-46 = A.h.U.13.54cd-59.^{260}$

A.s.U.16.47-49 = A.h.U.13.62-64ab.

Three additional verses follow (16.50-52).²⁶¹

 $A.s.U.16.53 = A.h.U.13.65-66ab.^{262}$

A.s.U.16.54ab = A.h.U.13.67cd.

Two prescriptions are added (16.54cd-55).

A.s.U.16.56 = A.h.U.13.68-69ab.

A.s.U.16.57 replaces A.h.U.13.69cd-70ab.

A.s.U.16.58-59ab = A.h.U.13.70cd-71.

The varti called pītā is added (16.59cd).

A.s.U.16.60-64 replace A.h.U.13.72-73ab.

A.s.U.16.65-67 replace A.h.U.13.73cd-77ab.

A.s.U.16.68 = A.h.U.13.77cd-78.

The verses that follow continue with the treatment of timira due to all the doşas (16.69–74ab), ²⁶³ timira due to a combination of two doşas (16.74c), ²⁶⁴ and kāca (16.74d–75), ²⁶⁵

A.s.U.16.76-77 = A.h.U.13.91-92.

The next subject is the treatment of niśāndha, also called rātryandha and naktāndha (16.78–84).²⁶⁶

The dietary rules to be observed in eye diseases are the same as those in patients with sores (16.85). General rules for the behaviour and diet of patients with timira are given (16.86–87). Patients should never forget to pay attention to the six beings who protect one's eyesight: Suṣa, Bhavya, Sukanyā (Cyavana's wife), Skanda, Cyavana, and the Aśvins (16.88).

A.s.U.16.89-94 = A.h.U.13.94cd-100.

The chapter ends with a recipe against timira (16.95).

Chapter seventeen (linganāšapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.14), is largely in prose (17.1–3 and 7–27), with some verses interspersed and at the end (17.4–6, 28–34).

The subjects dealt with in the first part are: the synonyms of linganāśa: nīlikā, patala

and āndhya; ²⁶⁷ linganāśa due to kapha is curable; six complications of it are known: āvartakī, śarkarā, rājīmatī, chinnāṇiśukā, candrakī, and chattrakī (17.2); the characteristics of these six complications, which constitute contra-indications for couching (17. 3). ²⁶⁸

A.s.U.17.4a-d = A.h.U.14.8

An ardhaśloka is added (17.4ef).

A.s.U.17.5 = A.h.U.14.2-3ab.

One verse is added on cases suitable or unsuitable to couching (17.6).

The technique of couching is described, followed by the after-treatment (17.7–16).²⁶⁹

Technical faults (vyadhadoşa) are discussed, the disorders resulting and their treatment; the faults mentioned are: adhovyadha, ūrdhvavyadha, kṛṣṇāsannavyadha, apā-ngāsannavyadha, and sirāvyadha (17.17–22). ²⁷⁰ When a sirājāla is present, one should remove it before proceeding to couching (17.23). Faultive ways of handling the śalāka (śalākābhramaṇadoṣa) are described, the disorders resulting, and their treatment; the faults dealt with are: kṣobhaṇa, ūrdhvapraṇayana, adhoṇayana, atyarthadṛṣṭighaṭṭṇaṇa, and atidṛṣṭipreraṇa (17.24). ²⁷¹ Undesirable effects of the couching procedure and the management of such cases form the next subject. Undesirable effects are: sphuṭaṇa, avagalaṇa, vistaraṇa, utplavaṇa, and līṇatā (17.25–27), ²⁷²

General lines of management after couching are dealt with (17.28-29). 273

A.s.U.17.30 = A.h.U.14.22.

Defects of the śalākā are described and the disorders that may result from using such an instrument (17.31).

A.s.U.17.32-34 = A.h.U.14.30-32.

Chapter eighteen (sarvākṣirogavij \bar{n} ān $\bar{1}$ ya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya (U.15).

Chapter nineteen (abhiṣyandapratiṣedha), corresponding to the first part of the sarvā-kṣirogapratiṣedha chapter of the *Hṛdaya* (U.16), is partly in prose (19.1–8, 10–58), partly in verse (19.9, 59–80).

The subjects dealt with in the first part are: the management of the prodromal stage (19.2); ²⁷⁵ general treatment (19.3); ²⁷⁶ measures against abhisyanda with a predominance of vāta or pitta, and with a predominance of kapha (19.4); ²⁷⁷ measures against particular symptoms (19.5); avacūrņana (19.6); another powder; ²⁷⁸ eyedrops (19.7); an añjana (19.8).

A.s.U.19.9 = A.h.U.16.6.

The chapter proceeds with recipes against abhisyanda and adhimantha due to vāta (19.10-28), ²⁷⁹ pitta (19.29-37), ²⁸⁰ kapha (19.38-52), ²⁸¹ and rakta (19.53-58). ²⁸²

Most eye diseases begin with abhisyanda; since this disease tends to corrupt the blood, one should subdue it as soon as possible (19.59).

The derivation of the terms syanda and adhimantha is discussed (19.60).

Several prescriptions are given against abhisyanda and other eye diseases (19.61-

80);²⁸³ some formulae carry a name: aparājitā varti (19.75–76), şaņmākşikayoga (19. 79),²⁸⁴

Chapter twenty (aksipākapillapratisedha), corresponding to the second part of the sarvāksirogapratisedha chapter of the *Hṛdaya* (U.16), is largely in prose (20.1–33), with some verses at the end (20.34–42).

The first part of the chapter is concerned with prescriptions against various types of aksipāka (20.2–23)²⁸⁵ and against amlosita (20.24).²⁸⁶

The second part begins with an enumeration of the eighteen chronic eye diseases which are called pilla (20.25).²⁸⁷ These diseases should be managed first according to their own nature; when they have reached the chronic stage called pilla, common therapeutic measures are available (20.26).²⁸⁸ These treatments are described (20.27–34).²⁸⁹

A.s.U.20.34 corresponds to A.h.U.16.58cd-59.²⁹⁰ A.s.U.20.35-42 = A.h.U.16.60-67.

Chaptertwenty-one (kamarogavijnanīya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya (U.17).

Chapter twenty-two (karnarogapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (U.18), is largely in prose (22.1–78), with a series of verses at the end (22.79–93).

The subjects dealt with in the first part are: the treatment of karṇaśūla due to vāta (22.2–14),²⁹¹ pitta (22.15–17),²⁹² kapha (22.18–20),²⁹³ and rakta (22.21);²⁹⁴ the treatment of pakvakarṇaśūla (22.22–25),²⁹⁵ karṇanāda and bādhirya (22.26–33),²⁹⁶ karṇapratīṇāha (22.34–35),²⁹⁷ kaṇḍū and śopha (22.36),²⁹⁸ pittikarṇa and lṛmikarṇa (22.37),²⁹⁹ vidradhi, kṣatavidradhi, arśas and arbuda (22.38),³⁰⁰ vidārikā (22.39),³⁰¹ pālīśoṣa (22.40–43),³⁰² tantrikā (22.44),³⁰³ paripoṭaka (22.45),³⁰⁴ utpāta (22.46),³⁰⁵ unmantha (22.47),³⁰⁶ duḥkhavardhana (22.48),³⁰⁷ and lehikāṇṭakās (22.49),³⁰⁸ general measures useful in disorders affecting the earlobes (pālīroga) (22.50); the treatment of various types of inflammation of the earlobes: utpuṭantī, śyāvā, kandūmatī, dahyamānā, yranitā, krśā, grathitā, and srāvavatī (22.51)

The second part deals with the repair of damage to the earlobes, due to either disease or violence (22.52). ³⁰⁹ Fifteen types of damage and the techniques suitable to their repair are mentioned: cakranemi, ³¹⁰ utpalabhedaka, kavāṭa, ³¹¹ ardhakavāṭa, vallūraka, vyāyojima, ganḍādhāra, ³¹² āsangima, āhārya and a variety called nirvedhima, ³¹³ śuṣkaśaṣkuli, ³¹⁴ saṃkṣipta, hīna, vallī, yaṣṭi, and kākauṣṭha (22.53–68). ³¹⁵ The first ten of this series can be repaired by surgical means; the other five types are unsuitable to surgical repair (22.69). ³¹⁶

Remarks of a technical nature follow (22.70–73); ³¹⁷ the blood should be examined in order to determine which of the doṣas may act as a corrupting factor (22.74–75); the surgical technique is described, followed by the after-treatment, ³¹⁸ contra-indications (22.76), complications and their management (22.77–78).

A verse is concerned with contra-indications for surgery (22.79). A.s.U.22.80 = A.h.U.18.55.

The treatment of earlobes which do not heal well is dealt with (22.81).³²⁰ Procedures useful in elongating the earlobes are described (22.82-85).³²¹ A.s.U.22.86-93 = A.h.U.16.59cd-66.

Chapter twenty-three ($n\bar{a}s\bar{a}rogavij\bar{n}\bar{a}n\bar{y}a$) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya (U.19).

Chapter twenty-four (nāsārogapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.20), is in prose, except for one verse at the end.

The subjects dealt with are: the initial treatment of all kinds of pīnasa (24.2); ³²² pācana measures (24.3); ³²³ drugs to be smelled at; ³²⁴ the inhalation of medicinal smoke ³²⁵ (24.4); the general treatment of the pakva stage (of pīnasa) (24.5); ³²⁶ things to be avoided (24.6); ³²⁷ the treatment of pratiśyāya due to vāta (24.7–11), ³²⁸ pitta (24.12–15), ³²⁹ kapha (24.16–19), ³³⁰ all three dosas (24.20), ³³¹ and blood (24.21); ³³² the treatment of duṣṭapratiśyāya (24.22–27), ³³³ kṣavathu and puṭaka (24.28), ³³⁴ nāsāśoṣa and nāsānāha (24.29), ³³⁵ nāsāpāka, dīpti ³³⁶ and nāsāsrāva (24.30), avīnasa ³³⁷ and pūṭināsa (24.31–33), ³³⁸ pūyarakta (24.34), ³³⁹ arśas (24.35–38), ³⁴⁰ arbuda (24.39–40), ³⁴¹ arśas and arbuda due to māɪnsa, medas or all three dosas (24.41). ³⁴²

The concluding verse (24.42)³⁴³ states that deficient surgical treatment (of arsas or arbuda) leads to renewed growths, and excessive treatment to particular complications.

Chapter twenty-five (mukharogavijfīānīya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.21).

Chapter twenty-six (mukharogapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.22), is entirely in prose.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of khandaustha (26.2-3), 344 osthakopa due to vāta (26.4),³⁴⁵ pitta and a trauma (26.5),³⁴⁶ blood (26.6),³⁴⁷ kapha (26.6),³⁴⁸ and medas (26.7); ³⁴⁹ the treatment of jalārbuda (26.8), ³⁵⁰ gandālajī (26.9), ³⁵¹ śītadanta (26.10), 352 dantaharsa (26.11), 353 dantacāla (26.12), 354 adhidantaka (26.13), 355 dantaśarkarā (26.14),356 and kapālikā (26.15);357 the treatment of lcrmidantaka; the extraction of teeth (26.16-22); 358 the treatment of sītāda after bloodletting (26.23); 359 the treatment of upakuśa (26.24),³⁶⁰ dantapupputaka (26.25),³⁶¹ dantavidradhi (26. 26), ³⁶² susira (26.27), ³⁶³ adhimāmsaka (26.28), ³⁶⁴ vidarbha (26.29), ³⁶⁵ and dantanādī (26.30–33); ³⁶⁶ the treatment of jihv ākantakas due to vāta, pitta, and kapha (26.34); ³⁶⁷ the treatment of jihvālasa (26.35),³⁶⁸ adhijihvā and upajihvā (26.36),³⁶⁹ galaśundikā (26.37),³⁷⁰ tālusamghāta, pupputa and kacchapa (26.38),³⁷¹ tālupāka (26.39),³⁷² and tāluśosa (26.40);³⁷³ the treatment of diseases of the throat in general (26.41);³⁷⁴ the treatment of rohinīkā due to vāta (26.42),³⁷⁵ pitta (26.43),³⁷⁶ blood (26.44),³⁷⁷ and kapha (26.45); 378 the treatment required in cases of rohinīkā due to kapha is also appropriate in śālūka, vrnda, tundikerī and gilāyu (26.46); 379 the treatment of galavidradhi (26.47), 380 galaganda due to vāta (26.48), 381 kapha (26.49) 382 and medas (26.50); ³⁸³ the treatment of mukhapāka in general (26.51-55), ³⁸⁴ mukhapāka due to vāta (26.56), ³⁸⁵ pitta (26.57), ³⁸⁶ kapha (26.58), ³⁸⁷ blood, ³⁸⁸ and all three doṣas (26.59); ³⁸⁹ the treatment of arbuda (26.60) ³⁹⁰ and pūtimukha (26.61). ³⁹¹

 $A.s.U.26.62-65 = A.h.U.22.108-111.^{392}$

Chapter twenty-seven (śirorogavijñānīya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.23).

Chapter twenty-eight (sirorogapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (U.24), is partly in prose (28.1–48, 66), partly in verse (28.49–65, 67–81).

The subjects dealt with in prose are: the treatment of śiro'bhitāpa due to vāta (28. 2–7), ³⁹³ ardhāvabhedaka (28.8), ³⁹⁴ sūryāvarta (28.9), ³⁹⁵ śiro'bhitāpa due to pitta and to blood (28.10–12), ³⁹⁶ śarikhaka (28.13), ³⁹⁷ śiro'bhitāpa due to kapha (28.14–18), ³⁹⁸ śiro'bhitāpa due to all three doṣas (28.19), ³⁹⁹ śiroroga due to parasites (kṛmija) (28. 20–25), ⁴⁰⁰ śiraḥkampa (28.26), ⁴⁰¹ upaśīrṣaka (28.27), ⁴⁰² piṭakās, arbuda and vidradhi (28.28–29), ⁴⁰³ arūṇṣikā(28.30–32), ⁴⁰⁴ dāraṇaka (28.33), ⁴⁰⁵ indralupta (28.34–37), ⁴⁰⁶ and khalati (28.38–41); the prescriptions to be employed in khalati are also useful in cases of palita (28.42); the treatment of palita (28.43–48).

A.s.U.28.49-50 = A.h.U.24.33-34ab.

A.s.U.28.51-52 = A.h.U.24.37-38ab.

A.s. U.28.53ab corresponds to A.h.U.24.38cd.

A.s.U.28.53cd = A.h.U.24.39ab.

A long formula, active against palita, follows (28.54-60).

A.s.U.28.61-62 = A.h.U.24.39cd-41ab.

More prescriptions come next: against greying of the hair (28.63-64), greying and baldness (28.65), greying and diseases of neck and head in general (28.66-68).

A.s.U.28.69-81 = A.h.U.24.47-59.

Chapter twenty-nine (vraṇavibhaktiparijñānīya), corresponding to the first part of the chapter of the *Hṛdaya* called vraṇapratiṣedha (U. 25), is in prose, with the exception of one verse and a series of four verses at the end.

The subjects dealt with are: the etymology of vraṇa (29.2); the aetiological factors in the two types of vraṇa: nija and āgantu; the āgantu type develops into a nija type after the doṣas have gained a foothold in it (29.3);⁴⁰⁸ vraṇas are also classified as duṣṭa by the doṣas or śuddha (29.4);⁴⁰⁹ the general characteristics of a corrupted (duṣṭa) vraṇa (29.5);⁴¹⁰ fifteen varieties are distinguished (29.6);⁴¹¹ the characteristics of a vraṇa corrupted by vāta (29.7),⁴¹² pitta (29.8),⁴¹³ kapha (29.9),⁴¹⁴ blood (29.10),⁴¹⁵ and a combination of doṣas (29.11);⁴¹⁶ the characteristics of a śuddha vraṇa (29.12);⁴¹⁷ the eight substrates (āśaya) of vraṇas; ⁴¹⁸ their exudates (āṣrāva) are dependent on the type of substrate (29.13); the characteristics of the eight types of exudate (29.14–21);⁴¹⁹ the degree of curability of a vraṇa is dependent on its substrate and form; other criteria relating to ease or difficulty of management (29.22);⁴²⁰ categories of patients in whom vraṇas can easily be cured (29.23);⁴²¹ the reasons for this curability (29.24);⁴²² the op-

posite groups of patients (29.25), 423 locations and other features determining that a vrana will heal easily or with difficulty (29.26). 424

A.s.U.29.27 = A.h.U.25.17.

The chapter proceeds with diseases in which vranas are only amenable to palliative treatment (29.28). ⁴²⁵ Characteristics and accompanying diseases leading to incurability are enumerated (29.29). ⁴²⁶

A.s.U.29.30-33 = A.h.U.25.19cd-23ab.

Chapter thirty (vranapratisedha), corresponding to the second part of the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.25), is partly in prose, partly in verse.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of a vraṇa in the stage with swelling is like that of śvayathu; apatarpaṇa is the most important measure (30.2);⁴²⁷ a verse on apatarpaṇa follows (30.3),⁴²⁸ one on its beneficial results (30.4), and one on the usefulness of lepa, abhyaṅga and pariṣeka as general procedures in the treatment of vraṇas (30.5);⁴²⁹ the virtues of lepa (30.6);⁴³⁰ the characteristics of and indications for the application of a pradeha, pralepa and kalka (30.7);⁴³¹ the ten types of ālepa: snai-hika, nirvāpaṇa, prasādaṇa, stambhana, vilāyaṇa, pācaṇa, pīḍaṇa, śodhaṇa, ropaṇa, and savarṇīkaraṇa (30.8); the indications for these ten ālepas (30.9); a pradeha should never be applied at night; the reasons for this prohibition (30.10); the reasons adduced by Puṣkalāvata (30.11–12); a lepa should always be fresh; a lepa prepared on the day before its use has already lost its potency (30.13).

A.s.U.30.14a-d = A.h.U.25.25cd-26ab.

An ardhaśloka is added (30.14ef). 432

Therapeutic measures useful after bloodletting are mentioned (30.15).

A.s.U.30.16a-d = A.h.U.25.29.

An ardhaśloka is added (30.16ef).

A.s.U.30.17 = A.h.U.25.30.

Various types of treatment are described: sveda (30.18),⁴³³ a pralepa (30.19),⁴³⁴ an utkārikā (30.20), an ālepa and upanāha (30.21), pariseka (30.22), vimlāpana (30.23).

A.s.U.30.24 = A.h.U.25.32cd-33ab.

Ālepas are described (30.25).435

A.s.U.30.26 = A.h.U.25.34.

An upanāha is described (30.27).⁴³⁶The treatment suitable when the vṛana is going to ripen (pākābhimukha) is dealt with (30.28). Surgery is required when the vṛaṇa is ripe (30.29).

A.s.U.30.29a-c = A.h.U.25.36a-c.

A.s.U.30.29d differs from A.h.U.25.36d.

Preparations suitable to make a ripe vraņa burst (dāraņa) are dealt with (30.30). ⁴³⁷ A.s. U.30.31–33 = A.h. U.25.38–40.

Vranas which are not clean should be cleansed (30.34); kaṣāyas suitable to this purpose (30.35). 438

A.s.U.30.36 = A.h.U.25.43.

Vartis (plugs) are described next (30.37–38), followed by prescriptions to be employed in deep vranas due to pitta (30.39),⁴³⁹ elevated types with little exudation (30.

40), vranas with much exudation, etc. (30.41), vranas associated with fatty tissue, etc. (30.42–43), with small openings, containing a foreign body, etc. (30.44). (40.44)

A.s.U.30.45ab = A.h.U.25.45ab.

The prose part of 30.45 agrees with A.h.U.25.45cd.

A.s.U.30.46-47 = A.h.U.25.46.

A recipe follows (30.48).441

A.s.U.30.49-50 = A.h.U.25.47cd-48.

A recipe for avasādana purposes (30.51), ⁴⁴² prescriptions to be employed in firm, painful vraņas (30.52-53), ghees for all kinds of vraņas (30.54), and recipes making very soft vraņas firm (30.55), are added.

A.s.U.30.56-57 = A.h.U.25.49cd-51.

Purified vraņas are to be treated with drugs promoting granulation (ropaṇa); seven praksālana prescriptions are given for this purpose (30.58).

Prescriptions useful in various types of corrupted vranas are given next (30.59-66).443

A.s.U.30.67-69 = A.h.U.25.53cd-57.

Ropana measures are discussed (30.70–75),⁴⁴⁴ followed by a lepa adjusting the colour of the new tissue (varnasādhana) (30.76).

A.s.U.30.77-78 = A.h.U.25.59cd-61ab.

A recipe for adjusting the colour of the new skin is added (30.79). 445

A.s.U.30.80 = A.h.U.25.61cd-62ab.

More recipes are added (30.81-86).446

A.s.U.30.87 = A.h.U.25.62cd-63.

The concluding verse deals with dietary rules (30.88).

Chapter thirty-one (sadyovranapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hṛdaya* (U.26), is largely in verse, with a few prose passages at the beginning (31.1–5).

The subjects dealt with first are: sadyovraṇas (wounds) are caused by various kinds of trauma (abhighāta); a synonym of sadyovraṇa is kṣata; sadyovraṇas are of three main types: chinna, viddha and piccita (31.2); the chinna type is of five varieties: ghṛṣṭa, when the skin only is injured, avakṛtta, when the flesh is also affected to some extent, vicchinna, when the wound is deep and large, vilambita, when part of the bones, snā-yus, etc., have remained (intact), and pātita, when a limb or part of it is completely cut off (31.3); the viddha type is of eight varieties: anuviddha, when the foreign body has penetrated into muscular tissue, uttuṇḍita, when it has reached the other side and elevated the skin, atividdha, when it comes out partly at the other side, and nirviddha, when it has come out completely after piercing some part of the body; fourmore varieties are caused by large weapons, such as spears, when these, hitting the trunk, injure the viscera: anubhinna, bhinnottuṇ�ita, atibhinna and nirbhinna (31.4); wounds by the crushing of parts of the body containing bones are called piccita; these are of two kinds, dependent on the presence or absence of an open wound (vraṇa); those without an open wound will be discussed in the chapter on bhanga (31.5). 447

A.s.U.31.6-13 = A.h.U.26.6-13.

Some verses on the treatment of corrupted (dușța) wounds are added (31.14-16). ⁴⁴⁸ A.s.U.31.17-51 = A.h.U.26.14-49.

The recipe for an oil promoting wound healing is added (31.52).

A.s.U.31.53-61 = A.h.U.26.50-58.

The concluding verse (31.62) states that all wounds, in spite of their differences, can be regarded and treated as varieties of the three main types mentioned, in the same way as all disorders arise from accumulation, etc., of the three dosas.

Chapter thirty-two (bhangapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.27), is partly in prose (32.1–20), partly in verse (32.21–73).

The passages in prose deal with: the several kinds of asthibhanga are caused by various kinds of trauma (abhighāta) (32.2); 449 bhanga is of two main types: it affects a joint or occurs without affecting a joint; dislocations (sandhimukta) are of six varieties: utpiṣṭa, viśliṣṭa, avakṣipṭa, atikṣipṭa, tiryakkṣipṭa, and vivartita (32.3); 450 the general symptoms found in dislocations (32.4); 451 the symptoms of the six varieties (32.5); 452 fractures (asandhibhagna) are of twelve varieties: karkaṭaka, vakra, sphuṭiṭa, velliṭa, asthicchallikā, aśvakarṇa, piccita, dāriṭa, cūrṇiṭa, atipāṭiṭa, śeṣiṭa, and majjānugata (32.6); 453 the general symptoms of fractures (32.7); 454 the characteristics of karkaṭaka (32.8), vakra, sphuṭiṭa (32.9), velliṭaka (32.10), 455 asthicchallikā (32.11), aśvakarṇa (32.12), piccita (32.13), dāriṭa (32.14), 456 cūrṇiṭa (32.15), atipāṭiṭa (32.16), śeṣiṭa 457 (32.17), and majjānugata (32.18); 458 the last five of these are difficult to cure in particular groups of patients (32.19); 459 incurable dislocations and fractures (32.20). 460

A.s.U.32.21-32 = A.h.U.27.11cd-24.

An ardhaśloka is added (32.33ab).

A.s.U.32.33cd = A.h.U.27.25ab.

An additional verse is concerned with the treatment of viślista and utpista dislocations, and with that of complications (32.34).

A.s.U.32.35-36 = A.h.U.27.25cd-27ab.

The treatment of special cases is dealt with in a series of additional verses (32.37–55), 461

A.s.U.32.56-64 = A.h.U.27.27cd-35.

A.s.U.32.65-66 = A.h.U.27.9-11ab.

The characteristics of a healed bhagna are described in an added verse (32.67). A.s. U.32.68-73 = A.h.U.27.36-41.

Chapter thirty-three (bhagandarapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the Hrdaya (U.28), is partly in verse, partly in prose.

A.s.U.33.2-26 = A.h.U.28.1-22ab.

Unripe (apakva) piṭakās require a type of treatment that prevents pāka occurring in them (33.27). ⁴⁶³ Ripe piṭakās should, after proper preparation of the patient, be examined in the same way as haemorrhoids (33.28). ⁴⁶⁴

The surgical treatment of fistulas with an internal or external opening is dealt with (33.29), 465 followed by the after-treatment (33.30). 466 Rules for the management of various types of anal fistulas are given (33.31). 467 The treatment of the pariksepin type

(33.32), ⁴⁶⁸ arśobhagandara (33.33), ⁴⁶⁹ and the unmārgin type (33.34) ⁴⁷⁰ is discussed. A.s.U.33.35–38 = A.h.U.28.30–33ab.

A.s.U.33.39 replaces A.h.U.28.33cd.471

Recipes come next: lepas (33.40-42), ⁴⁷² a kalka (33.43), and oils (33.44-46). ⁴⁷³ A.s.U.33.47-48 = A.h.U.28.37-38. ⁴⁷⁴

A.s.U.33.49-53 = A.h.U.28.40-44.

Chapter thirty-four (granthyarbudaślīpadāpacīnāḍīvijñānīya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.29).

Chapter thirty-five (granthyādipratiṣedha), corresponding to the granthyarbudaślīpadā-pacīnādīpratiṣedha chapter of the *Hṛdaya* (U.30), is largely in prose; verses are found at 35.18, 36, 39–40.

The subjects dealt with are: the general treatment of granthi (35.2–5);⁴⁷⁵ the treatment of granthi due to vāta (35.6–7),⁴⁷⁶ pitta and blood (35.8),⁴⁷⁷ and kapha (35.9–10);⁴⁷⁸ the treatment of māṃsa-, vraṇa-, medogranthi (35.11–12),⁴⁷⁹ and sirāgranthi (35.13);⁴⁸⁰ the treatment of arbuda due to vāta (35.14), pitta (35.15), kapha (35.16), and medas; measures against all types of arbuda (35.17–18);⁴⁸¹ the treatment of ślīpada due to vāta (35.19),⁴⁸² pitta (35.20)⁴⁸³ and kapha (35.21);⁴⁸⁴ the treatment of ślīpada and apacī with caustics (35.22);⁴⁸⁵ other prescriptions against ślīpada (35.23); the treatment of gaṇḍamālā (35.24–25), gaṇḍamālā, apacī and other disorders (35.26–27),⁴⁸⁶ apacī (35.28)⁴⁸⁷, gaṇḍamālā and apacī (35.29–30);⁴⁸⁸ the treatment of fistulas (nāḍī) due to vāta (35.31),⁴⁹⁹ pitta (35.32),⁴⁹⁰ kapha (35.33),⁴⁹¹ due to a foreign body (śalya) (35.34),⁴⁹² and those not caused by some sharp object (aśastrakrta) (35.35).⁴⁹³

A.s.U.35.36 = A.h.U.30.36cd-37ab.

Prescriptions against all kinds of fistula (gati) are given next (35.37–38), followed by a recipe promoting the healing process (35.39), and that of an oil against nāḍī and apacī (35.40). 494

Chapter thirty-six (kṣudrarogavijñānīya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.31).

Chapter thirty-seven (kṣudrarogapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.32), is in prose.

The subjects dealt with are: the treatment of unripe ajagallikā (37.2)⁴⁹⁵ and the unripe stages of yavaprakhyā up to pāṣāṇagardabha (37.3); ⁴⁹⁶ the treatment of the same disorders, together with sahajā ajagallikā, when ripe (37.4); ⁴⁹⁷ the treatment of mukhadūṣikā (37.5), ⁴⁹⁸ padmakaṇṭaka (37.6), ⁴⁹⁹ vivṛtā up to jālagardabha, along with irivellikā (37.7-8), ⁵⁰⁰ agnirohiṇī (37.9), ⁵⁰¹ vidārikā (37.10), ⁵⁰² śarkarārbuda and medo'rbuda (37.11), ⁵⁰³ valmīka (37.12-15), ⁵⁰⁴ kadara (37.16), ⁵⁰⁵ ruddhaguda (37.17), ⁵⁰⁶ cippa (37.18-19), ⁵⁰⁷ kunakha (37.20), ⁵⁰⁸ alasa (37.21), ⁵⁰⁹ tilakālaka, maṣa, carmakīla, jatumaṇi (37.22), ⁵¹⁰ lānchana, vyaṅga, and nīlikā (37.23); ⁵¹¹ the treatment of vyaṅga in general (37.24), vyaṅga due to vāta (37.25-26), pitta (37.27-30), kapha (37.31-32), and blood (37.33); ⁵¹² the treatment of prasupti (37.34), ⁵¹³ utkotha and kotha (37.35). ⁵¹⁴

Chapter thirty-eight (guhyarogavijfīānīya) is identical with the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.33).

Chapter thirty-nine (guhyarogapratisedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.34), is partly in prose, partly in verse.

The subjects are: the general treatment of upadaṃśa (39.2–10a); ⁵¹⁵; the treatment of upadaṃśa due to vāta (39.10b–11), pitta (39.12–13), and kapha (39.14–15). ⁵¹⁶

A.s.U.39.16 = A.h.U.34.7.

The two remaining types of upadamsá (due to blood and to all three dosas) should be treated after warning the patient that cure will not be achieved (39.17). 517

The chapter proceeds with the treatment of arśas (39.18), ⁵¹⁸ sarṣapikā (39.19), ⁵¹⁹ avamantha (39.20), ⁵²⁰ kumbhīkā (39.21), ⁵²¹ alajī (39.22), ⁵²² uttamā (39.23), ⁵²³ puṣkarikā, sarnvyūdhā, sparśahāni, tvakpāka (39.24), ⁵²⁴ mrdita (39.25), ⁵²⁵ aṣthīlikā (39.26), ⁵²⁶ nivṛtta (39.27), ⁵²⁷ avapāṭikā (39.28), ⁵²⁸ niruddhamaṇi (39.29), ⁵²⁹ grathita, śataponaka, śarkarārbuda ⁵³⁰ (39.30), ⁵³¹ and all types (of pitakā) (39.31). ⁵³²

The next prose section is concerned with the treatment of yonivyāpad due to vāta (39.32), vāta and pitta (39.33), vāta (39.34);⁵³³ the treatment of yoniśūla (39.35–40);⁵³⁴ the treatment of aticaraṇā (39.41–42), prākcaraṇā, śuṣkā, viplutā, karṇinī (39.43), viplutā (39.44), karṇinī (39.45), ⁵³⁵ udāvṛttā, ⁵³⁶ mahāyoni, ⁵³⁷ yonisraṃsa (39.46), jātaghnī, raktayoni, and raktakṣayā (39.47).

The remaining part of the chapter, in verse, deals with: the general treatment of yonivyāpad due to vāta, pitta, kapha, and combinations of doṣas (39.48–49);⁵³⁸ the reatment of a yoni which is duḥsthitā, jihmā, saṃvṛtā, niḥsṛta, vivṛtā, sthānāpavṛttā (39.50–51);⁵³⁹ the treatment of all cases of yonivyāpad with pañcakarman and various other general measures (39.52–53);⁵⁴⁰ the specific treatment of disorders due to vāta, pitta, and kapha (39.54);⁵⁴¹ the treatment of vāminī and āplutā (39.55),⁵⁴² pariplutā and upaplutā (39.56),⁵⁴³ mahāyoni (39.57),⁵⁴⁴ and yonisraṃsa (39.58); ⁵⁴⁵ all the measures against vāta disorders are useful in yonivyāpad too, particularly in mahāyoni (39.59),⁵⁴⁶

A.s.U.39.60 = A.h.U.34.23.

A.s.U.39.61-67 = A.h.U.34.35-41.

A.s.U.39.68 = A.h.U.34.44cd-45ab.

The chapter goes on with the treatment of asrgdara due to vāta (39.69–70),⁵⁴⁷ pitta (39.71–72), ⁵⁴⁸ and kapha (39.73), ⁵⁴⁹

A.s.U.39.74-78 = A.h.U.34.45cd-50ab.

The measures employed in garbhasrāva are useful in pradara too (39.79). 550

Prescriptions for the treatment of raktakṣayā (39.80) and corruption of the yoni by kapha (39.81–88)⁵⁵¹ follow.

A.s.U.39.89-91 = A.h.U.34.51-54ab.

Prescriptions useful in yonisrāva are described (39.92-100).552

A.s.U.39.101-111 = A.h.U.34.55cd-67

Chapter forty (viṣapratiṣedha), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.35), is partly in prose (40.1–13), but mainly in verse (40.14–180).

The subjects dealt with are: the mythical origin of poison, which arose during the churning of the ocean; Brahmā, wishing to avert the dangers inherent in it and to preserve its potential usefulness, gave it a place in members of the plant kingdom; this (type of) poison is called sthavara (40.2-4); Visnu placed poison in snakes and other animals; this (type of) poison is called jangama (40.5); 553 the ten sources of sthāvara poisons (40.6); 554 examples of these ten groups (40.7); 555 the effects brought about by each of these groups; effects brought about by all vegetable poisons, 556 but in particular by the kandavisas, which are sharp (tīksna) and quick in their actions; the other nine groups are usually lethal after some time (40.8);557 vegetable poisons are also called maula, because (the life of) a plant depends on its roots (mūla) (40.9); the sixteen sources of poisons of animal origin; 558 poisonous animals are snakes, kītas, kaṇabhas, etc.; 559 the disorders caused by their poisons and the treatment of these disorders is going to be discussed (40.10); the general effects of poisons of animal origin (40.11); 560 the ten properties of poisons (40.12); ⁵⁶¹ the effects of each of these properties; ⁵⁶² caution is necessary for the avoidance of poisons present in articles of food; poisons cannot be digested and are therefore lethal; 563 even when the symptoms have disappeared thanks to mantras and drugs, they may flare up again (40.13).

A.s.U.40.14-15 = A.h.U.35.5cd-7ab.

A.s.U.40.16ab is related to A.h.U.35.8cd.

A.s.U.40.16cd-17 = A.h.U.35.9-10.

The way is described in which a poison, after corrupting the blood, pervades the whole body and produces many symptoms; the doşas become powerful during this process (40.18–20). A poison reaches that doşa and its respective seats first to which it is related in its properties (40.21); those disorders which usually arise from that doşa manifest themselves first, but disorders caused by another doşa may also develop (40.22).

Symptoms caused by a poison staying in the head are described; other symptoms arise similarly when it resides elsewhere (40.23–24). Pervading the whole body and obstructing the channels, a poison makes the prānas leave the body (40.25).

Places where the poison stays in particular are dependent on the way it has entered an organism; ⁵⁶⁴ the flesh of animals that died from poison should not be eaten (40. 26). ⁵⁶⁵

The symptoms caused by poisoning depend on the doşa(s) it excites; the treatment should be initiated in conformity with this principle (40.27).

The next subject is formed by the stages (vega) of poisoning. Seven stages are said to exist, but Punarvasu distinguishes a number of eight (40.28). Descriptions follow of the series of eight stages (of Punarvasu) (40.29–31), the seven stages of Nagnajit (40.32–33), Videhapati (40.34), and Ālambāyana (40.35). Dhanvantari is said to acknowledge, in cases of snake-bite, the same stages as Ālambāyana, with this difference that a stage affecting the kostha replaces that affecting the snāyus (40.36). 566

The relationship between the vegas and the kalās is explained (40.37–38). ⁵⁶⁷ Everything discussed agrees with the teachings of the muni (40.39).

A.s.U.40.40-44 = A.h.U.35.33-37.

A.s.U.40.45-57 = A.h.U.35.11-23.

Agadas, devised by sages in former times, will be discussed next (40.58): the agada called saṃjīvana, devised by Svayambhū (40.59–67), the yāpanāgada (40.68–72), sūryodayāgada (40.73–74), other agadas (40.75–80),⁵⁶⁸ brāhmāgada (40.81), prājāpatyāgada (40.82), the agada of Cāṇakya (40.83),⁵⁶⁹ daśāṅgāgada (40.84),⁵⁷⁰ two more agadas (4.85–86), an agada made by Śiva (40.87), the auśanasāgada (40.88), another agada (40.89).

Two prescriptions against mulavisas are given (40.90).

Haridrā is said to the best drug active against poisons (40.91).

Prescriptions for a collyrium (40.92) and an errhine (40.93) follow.

The preparation, indications and actions are described of the gandhahastyagada (40.94–100);⁵⁷¹ the ajitāgada (40.101), bālasūryāgada (40.102), and māheśvarayoga (40.103) come next.

A.s.U.40.104-121 = A.h.U.35.40cd-59.

More prescriptions against gara are added (40.122-126), followed by prescriptions against poisoning in general (40.127-140), amongst which are found the ajeyaghṛta (40.130-132)⁵⁷² and amrtasarpis (40.133).⁵⁷³

The symptoms and treatment of poisoning by the ingestion of haritāla (40.141–143), ghurghūraka (= dhattūra) (40.144) and kodrava (40.145–146) are described.

The treatment of poisoning by dūsīvisa is dealt with.

A.s.U.40.147-148 = A.h.U.35.38-40ab.

A purgative ascribed to Kāśyapa is added (40.149).

More purgatives useful in poisoning in general are referred to (40.150).

The preparation of a compound drug, active against all kinds of poisoning and many other disorders, is described (40.151–155).

The relative forces of drugs and mantras in the treatment of poisoning are discussed (40.156–159).

A.s.U.40.160-168 = A.h.U.35.60-70ab.

The treatment required in special cases, where the poison stays in the blood $(40.169)^{574}$ or in the head (40.170), or where vāta is blocked (40.171-172), 575 is described. Generally, the doṣa normally present in the seat reached by the poison, should be counteracted, 576 while taking into consideration the nature of the poison (40.173). The management of cases where the poison stays in a seat of kapha, pitta or vāta $(40.174-178)^{577}$ is described.

Complications should be treated in conformity with their nature (40.179).

A.s.U.40.180 = A.h.U.35.70cd-71.

Chapter forty-one (sarpaviṣavijñānīya), corresponding to the first part of the sarpaviṣapratiṣedha chapter of the *Hṛdaya* (U.36), is in verse.

Serpents are divided into two categories: divine (divya) and earthly (bhauma); the divine serpents are Vāsuki, Takṣaka, Ananta, Sagara, Sāgarālaya, Nanda, Úpananda, etc.; their actions are mentioned; their worship is the only remedy against the bad effects of their gaze and breath (41.2–4).⁵⁷⁸

A.s.U.41.5-11 = A.h.U.36.1-8ab.

The sixteen non-poisonous snakes are enumerated: 579 divyaka, ajagara, sarpa, 580

patīka, ⁵⁸¹ vṛkṣaśāyika, ⁵⁸² śakalin, ⁵⁸³ puṣpaka, ⁵⁸⁴ kṣīrin, ⁵⁸⁵ lāsinī, ⁵⁸⁶ sārasāhika, ⁵⁸⁷ varṣāhika, jyotiratha, śukavaktra, ⁵⁸⁸ balāhaka, ⁵⁸⁹ gajabhakṣa, ⁵⁹⁰ and plavodvāhin ⁵⁹¹ (41.12–13), ⁵⁹²

A female snake is able to conceive in the month Jyestha, copulates in Āṣāḍha, and lays two hundred and forty eggs in Kārttika (41.14–15ab). Eggs of the colour of the karketana gem produce males, variegated eggs with long, red stripes produce females, and eggs of the colour of a śirīṣa flower give rise to napuṃsakas (41.15b–16c). Four fangs arise on the seventh day after birth; poison is present from the fourteenth day onwards (41.16c-f). The colours of the four fangs are described and the number of drops of poison present in each of them; a drop (bindu) measures a mudga in this case (41.17–18ab). 593 This is only valid for poisonous snakes; non-poisonous snakes possess forty-four fangs (41.18b-f).

Snakes reach an age of 120 years. Gonasa snakes, however, who arise from the nostrils of cattle, may live for five hundred years (41.19).

The characteristics of male, female and klība (= napuṃsaka) snakes⁵⁹⁴ are described (41.20–21)⁵⁹⁵ and the periods of time on which they preferably bite (41.22).

The characteristics of brāhmaṇa (41.23–24), kṣatriya (41.25–26), vaiśya (41.27) and śūdra (41.28) snakes are dealt with, ⁵⁹⁶ the periods of time of their moving about (41.29a-c), the position, relative to the victim, from which they attack (41.29d–30a), and the doṣas excited by their bites (41.30). The part bitten by each of the four groups of snakes has a characteristic smell (41.31). Their food consists of air (vāyu), mice, frogs, and anything eatable respectively (41.32).

A.s.U.41.33-42 = A.h.U.36.8cd-17.

The signs characteristic of a bite of a poisonous and a non-poisonous snake are mentioned (41.43–44a), ⁵⁹⁷ followed by the characteristics of and disorders caused by the bite of a phaṇāvant (= darvīkara) (41.44b–48), maṇḍalin (41.49–51), rājīmant (41.52–54), and vyantara (41.55a). ⁵⁹⁸ The signs pointing to a bite by a male, female and napuṇṣakaṣnake (4.55b–57ab), an old snake, a young one, a kumāra, a kumārī, a pregnant snake, and one who just laid eggs are described (41.57cd–59). ⁵⁹⁹

The vegas, in relation to blood, muscular tissue and the other elements of the body, constitute the next subject (41.60).

A.s.U.41.61-71 = A.h.U.36.19-30ab.

Medicines, even mantras, are of no avail against the bites of particular snakes; the characteristics of these snakes are described; persons bitten by them are sometimes saved by having recourse to religious ways of healing (41.72–75).⁶⁰⁰

A.s.U.41.76-79 = A.h.U.36.30cd-34ab.

Signs which point to the approach of death are enumerated (41.80), followed by those which indicate that a patient should be given up (41.81–82).

A.s.U.41.83-86 = A.h.U.36.34cd-38ab.

Chapter forty-two (sarpavişapratişedha), corresponding to the second part of the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.36), is in verse.

A.s.U.42.2-5 = A.h.U.36.38cd-42.

The aristā should not be too tight or loose; disadvantages of these badly tied aristās

are mentioned (42.6).

A.s.U.42.7-8cd = A.h.U.36.43-44.

Excision of the bite should not be carried out when it is situated in a marman or joint, due to the danger of ensuing death or disability (42.8ef).

A.s.U.42.9-13ab = A.h.U.36.45-49ab.

Corruption of the blood will certainly result in death (42.13cd).

When the flow of blood is deficient or excessive, the same measures are required as those used under the same circumstances in bloodletting (42.14).

A.s. U.42.15-18 = A.h.U.36.49cd-52.601

A.s.U.42.19 = A.h.U.36.53cd-54ab.

Prescriptions for particular groups of patients are added (42.20-22). 602

A.s.U.42.23-25 = A.h.U.36.54cd-57ab.

The recipe of an agada is added (42.26).

A.s.U.42.27-41 = A.h.U.36.57cd-73.

Recipes are given which are useful in snake-bites in general (42.42), when the poison has reached the rasa (42.43–45), 603 the head (42.46–47), 604 the eyes (42.48–52), 605 the throat (42.53), 606 the pakvāśaya (42.54), 607 the throat (42.55), the head (42.56–57), 608 or the eyes (42.58–59).

The treatment of cases where the poison stays in a seat of kapha (42.60–62), pitta (42.63–67), or vāta (42.68) is dealt with.

A.s.U.42.69-78 = A.h.U.36.74-83

The recipes of two agadas follow (42.79–86). 609

A.s.U.42.87-88 = A.h.U.36.84-85.

The recipe of a mahāgada is added (42.89), followed by that of a drug to be smeared on drugs, banners, etc. (42.90-94). ⁶¹⁰

A.s.U.42.95-99 = A.h.U.36.86-90ab.

Malevolent beings should be warded off in cases of poisoning (42.100). The means to achieve this end are described (42.101–106).

A.s.U.42.107-109 = A.h.U.36.90cd-93.

Chapter forty-three (kīṭaviṣapratiṣedha), corresponding to the first part of the kīṭalūtā-diviṣapratiṣedha chapter of the *Hṛdaya* (U.37), is in verse.

A.s.U.43.2 = A.h.U.37.1.

The eighteen vāyavya kīṭas, which provoke vāṭa, are enumerated: ⁶¹¹ kumbhīnasa, tuṇḍikerī, śṛṅgī, śaṭakulīraka, ucciṭiṅga, agnināman, cicciṭāṅga, ⁶¹² mayūraka, ⁶¹³ ahija, ⁶¹⁴ rabhraka, āvarta, śārikāmukha, vaidala, the two śarāvakurdas, ⁶¹⁵ puruṣa, citra-śīrṣa, and jāraka ⁶¹⁶ (43.3–4), ⁶¹⁷ followed by the twenty-four āgneya kīṭas, which provoke pitta (43.5–7); ⁶¹⁸ the thirteen saumya kīṭas, which provoke kapha, are: ⁶¹⁹ viśvambhara, pañcaśuṣka, ⁶²⁰ pañcakṛṣṇa, kokila, sthairyaka, ⁶²¹ pracalāka, ⁶²² vaṭa-bha, ⁶²³ kiṭibha, jaṭī, ⁶²⁴ sūcīmukha, kṛṣṇagodhā, dabhra, ⁶²⁵ and kāṣāyavāsika (43.8–9), ⁶²⁶

The twelve agnikīṭas which carry away the prāṇas are enumerated (43.10-11). 627 A.s.U.43.12-15 = A.h.U.37.2-5.

The means of attacking employed by vātika, paittika, ślaismika and samnipātika

kītas are mentioned (43.16).

The next subjects are: the characteristics of the local injury; the more general disorders caused by the poison of a kaṇabha (43.17), 628 trikaṇṭaka (43.18), kṛkalāsa, 629 dambha (43.19), dardura (= maṇḍūka) (43.20), 630 matsya, 63i jalaukas, vi-śvambhara (43.21), 632 śatapadī (43.22), 633 gṛhagodhikā (43.23), 634 maśaka (43.24), 635 maksikā, 636 sthālikā 637 (43.25), and pipīlikā (43.26-27).

A.s.U.43.28-37 = A.h.U.37.6-14ab.

A.s.U.43.38a-c replaces A.h.U.37.14cd.

Distinctions among kanabhas, etc., though actually present, are not mentioned, because the disorders they cause and the treatment of these disorders are similar (43.38d-f).

A.s.U.43.39-54 = A.h.U.37.15-28

Additional verses deal with: mahāsneha, milk and honey, mixed together, subdue the poison of kīṭas (43.55ab); a fumigation against poisonous kīṭas and scorpions (43.55c-f); prescriptions against the poison of various animals (43.56), viśvambharas, etc. (43.57–59),⁶³⁹ śatapadīs (43.60), ⁶⁴⁰ gṛhagodhikās (43.61), ⁶⁴¹ all poisons (43.62), ⁶⁴² the poison of maksikās (43.63), and that of varatīs (43.64).

A.s.U.43.65-69ab = A.h.U.37.29-33.

An ardhaśloka is added to the last prescription of the series (43.69cd). A second ardhaśloka (43.70ab) gives a recipe against śūla caused by a scorpion sting.

A.s.U.43.70c-f = A.h.U.37.34.

Two recipes against scorpion stings are added (43.71–72).

A.s.U.43.73-75 = A.h.U.37.35-37ab.

A prescription against scorpion (ali) poison is added (43.76).

A.s.U.43.77 = A.h.U.37.37cd-38.

Additional verses deal with the treatment of itching and weals (kotha), symptoms which disappear spontaneously within five days (43.78–80), a prescription alleviating these symptoms (43.81), and a lepa against a particular cluster of serious symptoms (43.82–83).

A.s.U.43.84-86 = A.h.U.37.39-41.

A prescription against the poison of ucciting as is added (43.87),⁶⁴³ and one against the poison of scorpions, undurus (rats), spiders and snakes (43.88–89).⁶⁴⁴

A.s.U.43.90 = A.h.U.37.43.

Chapter forty-four (lūtāpratiṣedha), corresponding to the second part of the kīṭalūtā-diviṣapratiṣedha chapter of the *Hṛdaya* (U. 37), is entirely in verse.

The subjects dealt with are: three stories on the origin of lūtās (spiders): they arose from drops of sweat fallen on blades of grass from the forehead of Vasistha when he was filled with anger towards Viśvāmitra (44.2); 645 they arose from sparks of fire from the bodies of the Asuras who were killed during the burning of the Khānḍava forest⁶⁴⁶ (44.3); others, disagreeing, assert that lūtās are blisters, caused by poisonous substances (viṣasphoṭa), which arise from mixtures of corrupted ingested food (44.4a-d); the relationship between lūtās and kītas (44.4d-f); lūtās are more dangerous than kītas; 647 their bites are lethal when left untreated; their poison is of

three grades and kills within seven days, ten days or half a lunar month (44.5); ⁶⁴⁸ the seven agneya lūtas, which arise from sweat, are: kapila, agnimukhī, pīta, padmā, mūtrā, sitā, and asitā; these types cause pitta disorders (44.6); the seven saumya lūtās, which arise from eggs, are: pāndurā, raktapadikā, bhrngā, pingā, trimandalā, pūti, and vīrā; these types cause kapha disorders (44.7); the seven vāyavya lūtās, which cause vāta disorders, are: kumudā, alavisā, raktā, citrā, santānī, mecakā, kasanā, and udbhidā (44.8); the seven lūtās of a mixed nature, which are upapādikās (having additional legs), are: kākāṇḍī, eṇapadī, lājā, vaidehī, jālinī, mālāguṇā, and suvarṇā; like a flaming fire, (their poisons) quickly pervade the whole body and cause disorders of a samnipāta type which are incurable; the disorders caused by the other lūtās are curable with difficulty (44.9-10); 649 the agneya types bite during the bright, the saumya types during the dark half of the month, the vayavya types in the nights of new and full moon, while the mixed types always bite (44.11); the local signs of a lesion caused by a lūtā in general (44.12–14);650 poison is present in a lūtā's breath, fangs, faeces, urine, semen, saliva, claws, and artava, but it is emitted in particular from its mouth parts (44.15); 651 the characteristics of lesions caused by poison from these eight sources (44.16-20); lūtās make lesions in the body upwards of the navel, kītas both upwards and downwards of it; clothing, etc., touched by their poison, should be cast aside, because disorders would result from their use (44.21);⁶⁵² the characteristics of a lūtā bite continue for more than half a day (44.22); 653 the signs present during the first (44.23), second (44.24), third (44.25) and fourth day (44.26); various disorders arise on the fifth day; the poison pervades the marmans on the sixth day; death ensues on the seventh day (44.27); 654 this course applies to the most dangerous lūtās; the other types cause, dependent on their nature, milder symptoms (44.28); 655 alleviation of the condition may arise in all cases during the twenty-first day (44.29); 656 local signs and general symptoms caused by paittika, ślaismika and vātika lūtās (44.30); 657 the same characteristics as those in snake-bites point to the predominance of a particular doşa (44.31);658 all lūtās are associated with all three dosas, but a particular one may dominate the syndrome present (44.32). 659

A.s.U.44.33-34 = A.h.U.37.51cd-53.

A.s.U.44.35-38ab = A.h.U.37.66cd-69.

A.s. U.44.38cd replaces A.h.U.37.70ab.

The chapter goes on with prescriptions for lepas to be employed in lesions caused by a paittika (44.39–42), ślaismika (44.43–45) and vātika (44.46–49) lūtā; vegetable drugs useful in all cases (44.50); emetics to be used against strong poisons (44.51–52); ⁶⁶⁰ purgatives (44.53–54), ⁶⁶¹ the diet after these purificatory procedures (44.55–56); the preparation of a ghee to be used in a clyster when vāta disorders are present; the diet after this treatment (44.57–61); errhines (44.62–65); collyria (44.66–69); other preparations (44.70–74); agadas (44.75–77); a prescription against various kinds of poison (44.78–79).

A.s.U.44.80-83 = A.h.U.37.77cd-80.

The number of kamikās (sprouts of granulation tissue) depends on the number of drops of semen (śukra) which enter a female lūtā's body during the fertile period (44.84). Prescriptions aiming at purification and healing of the wound (44.85–88),

and restoration of the skin (44.89), are described. Renewed growth of hair may be stimulated in the same way as mentioned for sores in general.

A.s.U.44.91 = A.h.U.37.81.

Chapter forty-five (pratyekalūtāpratiṣedha), absent from the *Hṛdaya*, deals, in verse, with the symptoms caused by each of the poisonous lūtās and their treatment.

The subjects are: the local symptoms and general disorders caused by the kapilā; treatment (45.2–4);⁶⁶² the same with regard to the agnimukhī (45.5–7),⁶⁶³ pītā (45.8–9),⁶⁶⁴ padmā (45.10–11),⁶⁶⁵ pūti (45.12–13),⁶⁶⁶ śvetā (45.14–15),⁶⁶⁷ kṛṣṇā (45.16),⁶⁶⁸ pāṇḍurā (45.17),⁶⁶⁹ raktapādā (45.18),⁶⁷⁰ bhṛṇgā (45.19),⁶⁷¹ piṅgā (45.20–21),⁶⁷² trimaṇḍalā (45.22–23),⁶⁷³ pūtigandhā (45.24–25),⁶⁷⁴ vīrā (45.26–27),⁶⁷⁵ kumudā (45. 28),⁶⁷⁶ alaviṣā (45.29–30),⁶⁷⁷ raktā (45.31),⁶⁷⁸ citrā (45.32–33),⁶⁷⁹ santānikā (45.34),⁶⁸⁰ mecakā (45.35),⁶⁸¹ kasanā (45.36),⁶⁸² kākāṇḍī (45.37),⁶⁸³ eṇapādā (45.38),⁶⁸⁴ lājavarṇā (45.39),⁶⁸⁵ vaidehī (45.40),⁶⁸⁶ jālinī (45.41),⁶⁸⁷ mālāguṇā (45.42–43),⁶⁸⁸ and sauvarṇikā (45.44);⁶⁸⁹ incurable lesions and disorders caused by lūtās should also be managed with the measures described, after warning the patient about the prognosis (45.45);⁶⁹⁰ the places of the body preferably attacked by each of the lūtās (45.46–51); they do, however, not restrict themselves to the places mentioned (45.52).

Chapter forty-six (mūṣikālarkapratiṣedha), corresponding to the mūṣikālarkaviṣapratisedha chapter of the *Hrdaya* (U.38), is in verse.

A.s.U.46.2-3 = A.h.U.38.1-2.

A.s. U.46.4 agrees with A.h.U.38.3.

A.s.U.46.5-16 = A.h.U.38.4-15ab.

A.s.U.46.17 is in conformity with A.h.U.38.15cd-16ab.

A.s.U.46.18-23 = A.h.U.38.16cd-23ab.

Additional verses describe emetics (46.24), prescriptions against complaints that may arise after vomiting (46.25), and prescriptions against symptoms of poisoning (46.26–28).

A.s.U.46.29-31 = A.h.U.38.23cd-26

Additional verses are about the management of complaints that may arise after purgation (46.32–35).

A.s.U.46.36-37 = A.h.U.38.27-29.

Additional verses give another prescription against rat's poison (46.38), a recipe to be employed when fever occurs (46.39–40), a recipe promoting the falling off of granulation tissue (karnikāpātana) (46.41–42), and oils and ghees promoting wound healing (46.43–44ab).

Thus the general measures to be used against poisoning by rat's bites have been dealt with (46.44cd).

The chapter goes on with the symptoms caused by and the treatment to be employed in bites of a lālana (46.45), 691 capala (46.46a-c), 692 putraka (46.46d-47), 693 hasira (46.48), 694 cikira (46.49), 695 ajina (46.50), 696 kaṣāyadanta (46.51), 697 kulaka (46.52), 698 kokila (46.53), 699 kapila (46.54), 700 kṛṣṇa (46.55), 701 aruṇa, etc. (46.56-59), 702 cucchundara (46.60), 703 and rasāla (46.61). 704

A.s.U.46.62-64cd = A.h.U.38.33-35.

A few prescriptions against dog's bites are added (46.64ef-66). 705

A.s.U.46.67 = A.h.U.38.36ab. 706

A.s.U.46.68 agrees with A.h.U.38.37ab. 707

A prescription is added (46.69).⁷⁰⁸

A.s.U.46.70 = A.h.U.38.37cd-38ab.

More prescriptions follow (46.71–76).

The next verses describe purificatory measures, the samsarjanakrama (46.77–78), ⁷⁰⁹ and a ritual bath (46.79–80) accompanied by a mantra ⁷¹⁰ addressed to Sārameya and Ganādhipa (46.81). ⁷¹¹

A.s.U.46.82-83 = A.h.U.38.39-40.

Chapter forty-seven (viṣopadravapratiṣedha), entirely in verse, deals with complications resulting from poisoning and has no corresponding part in the *Hṛdaya*.

The subjects are: the sixteen complications of poisoning which, if neglected, lead to death: fever, cough, vomiting, respiratory problems, hiccup, thirst, serious fainting fits (atimūrchana), loose stools (vidbheda), atikāthinya, ānāha, pain in the bladder region, headache, swelling (śvayathu), pūtidamśatva, bleeding (raktasrāva), and visānila (47. 2-3); the treatment of fever (47.4–8), cough (47.9–10c), vomiting (47.10d–14), respiratory problems (47.15-16), hiccup (47.17-19), thirst and fainting (47.20-23), diarrhoea (47.24-26), pain in the bladder region (47.27-28), headache (47.29), swelling (47.30-33), pūtidamśatva (47.34-36), 712 bleeding (47.37-39), and visānila 713 (47.40-39)46); other disorders should be treated on similar lines, taking into consideration the dosa(s) involved, etc. (47.47); remnants of a poison should be removed by agadas effective by seeing or hearing them (drsyagada, sabdagada), because a slight remnant may lead to renewed disease or death (47.48); an agada to be smeared on drums or banners, which, by seeing, hearing or touching them, destroy poisons (47.49–56);⁷¹⁴ the virtues of ksārāgada (47.57-58); 715 the preparation of the sugandhāgada, the rituals for its use, its effects (47.59-64); 716 the mahāsugandhāgada (47.65-75); 717 cooling measures should always be employed in cases of poisoning, except in those caused by kītas (47.76);⁷¹⁸ dietary and other general measures (47.77–81);⁷¹⁹ things to be avoided by a patient (47.82);⁷²⁰ the signs indicating cure (47.83).⁷²¹

Chapter forty-eight (visopayogīya), in verse, has no counterpart in the *Hṛdaya*. It deals with the use of poisonous substances as medicines. 722

The subjects are: poisons may be employed in cases of poisoning if mantras and other measures fail; this way oftreatment may be resorted to when the fifth stage (vega) of poisoning has passed, but before the seventh one has arrived; permission has to be asked from the king, but no other person should be notified (48.1); the physician, acquainted with the use of mantras, should carry out first dharaṇībandha (48.2); ⁷²³ poisons of vegetable origin are usually of the nature of kapha and tend to move upwards, while those of animal origin are usually of the nature of pitta and tend to move downwards (48.3); ⁷²⁴ the properties of these two categories of poisons are opposed to each other; therefore, those bitten by poisonous animals should be treated with root poisons

in the form of drinks and plasters (48.4);⁷²⁵ a physician should make those having ingested a vegetable poison be bitten by poisonous animals living on air (pavanāśin), because there is no better antidote than (another) poison (48.5); the dose of root poison to be administered is, dependent on the circumstances, four, six or eight barleycorns (yava) (48.6); a lesion by a kīta, however, always requires two yava, that by a scorpion one grain of sesamum (tila); no poisonous substance may be prescribed when the poison has affected the blood (48.7a-c); a lūtā lesion should not be treated by giving the patient a medicated drink, but by applying a plaster, after scarification; a poison administered in cases of poisoning acts like amrta, but, in the absence of poisoning, it is just a poison; neither should a poison be prescribed when the patient suffers from the effects of a weak poison (48.7cd-8); an agada should be given in cases of doubt; caution is necessary with agadas too, since, improperly prescribed, they give rise to disease (48.9-10); vegetable poisons that may be used are saktuka, mustaka, śrngi, valaka, sarsapāhvaya and vatsanābha, which are snigdha, ghana and guru; kālakūta, however, should never be employed as a counterpoison (48.11); medicines to be administered immediately after the medicinal use of a sharp poison (48.12-13); substances to be mixed with the counterpoison in order to achieve particular effects (48.14-17); a lepa against a burning sensation caused by poison (48.18); someone who has drunk a vegetable poison may be treated by having a furious snake, emitting smoke from its mouth, bite a piece of meat, held at the end of a stick of wood; after mincing this meat one should give it to eat (48.19-20); poisons may also be prescribed in all sorts of diseases when other measures fail; those striving after rasayana should always use poison (48.21); the proper periods of time for the use of poison for rasāyana purposes and in emergencies (ātyayikavyādhi) (48.22–23a); contra-indications for the use of poison as a medicine (48.23b-24); things to be avoided after administration of a poison (48. 25); disorders arising when these rules are not observed, in particular when dry articles of diet (rūksānna) are consumed (48.26); prescriptions containing haritāla, which are useful against fevers (48.27–28); prescriptions containing poisonous substances which are useful in long-standing fevers and other disorders (48.29–30), raktapitta (48.31), corrupted sores (dustavrana) (48.32), respiratory problems, hiccup and vomiting (48. 33), a series of disorders (48.34-36), mūtra (krcchra), udāvarta and aśmarī (48.37), aśmarī (48.38), śūla (48.39), vātāndatva 726 (48.40), gulma and plīhan (48.41), plīhodara and krimi(roga) (48.42), kustha (48.43), plīhan and kustha (48.44), kustha in general and particular types of kustha (48.45-54), mūdhagarbha (48.55), female infertility (48. 56), deficiency of semen in males (48.57), timira (48.58–59), kāca (48.60), śukla⁷²⁷ and arman (48.61), a number of eye diseases (48.62-66ab), rātryandhatva (48.66c-f), headache (48.67), pūtināsa (48.68), palita and arūmsikā (48.69), karnaśūla (48.70), diseases of the mouth (48.71), and stammering (vākskhalanatā) (48.72).

The chapter ends with a verse declaring that someone who uses poison medicinally need not be afraid of poisons administered by one's enemies, poisons of poisonous animals, etc.; he need not fear untimely death, grahas, and pāpman (48.73).

Chapter forty-nine (rasāyanavidhi), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.39), is partly in verse, partly in prose. ⁷²⁸

A.s.U.49.1-4ab = A.h.U.39.1-4ab.

A.s.U.49.4cd agrees with A.h.U.39.4cd.

Rasāyana procedures will be of no avail in persons who have not been subjected previously to oleation, etc. (49.5). Habits and practices which exite the doṣas and are thus injurious to the preservation of health are enumerated (49.6); the physiological effects of these habits and practices (49.7); their effects on the functions of the human organism (49.8); sensible humans behave therefore otherwise and resort to rasāyana measures, properly applied (49.9).

Rasāyana is of two main types: kuṭīprāveśika and vātātapika; the first of these is the most efficient (49.10). 729

The requirements for the construction of a kuṭī are described (49.11), ⁷³⁰ followed by those for the one to be subjected to the treatment (49.12). ⁷³¹

A.s.U.49.13-17 = A.h.U.39.8cd-14.

The name of the drug called harītakī is explained; the meanings of its synonyms, śivā, vijayā and abhayā are explained as well (49.18–19). Substances to be used in combination with harītakī, in order to have particular effects, are mentioned (49.20–21).

The way to prepare harītakī for use, the rules for its use, and its effects are dealt with next (49.22-23).

A.s.U.49.24-29 = A.h.U.39.15-20.

The effects of this brāhmarasāyana are described (49.30).732

A medicated ghee for rasāyana purposes is added (49.31–32).

A number of rasāyanas with āmalaka (49.33–36),⁷³³ vidanga (49.37) and triphalā (49.38) as their main ingredients are described.

A.s.U.49.39-49 = A.h.U.39.33-43.

Several rasāyana preparations are added: a recipe with triphalā (49.50–51), harītakī (49.52), āmalaka and iron (49.53–54), ⁷³⁴ āmalaka and other metals (49.55), and gold (49.56–61).

A rasāyana preparation containing gold should be used in combination with śańkhapuṣpī by one seeking longevity, in combination with ugragandhā, 735 or the stamens of padma or vidārī, by those seeking increase of intelligence, beauty (lakṣmī), or sexual pleasure (49.62).

A.s.U 49.63-72 = A.h.U.39.44-53.

The next subjects are: the preparation of nagabalarasayana, its uses, its effects (49. 73); ⁷³⁶ other plants, to be prepared and used in the same way (49.74); preparations with saravrksas (49.75); ways to obtain a svarasa (49.76) or a similar product (49.77).

A.s.U.49.78-90ab = A.h.U.39.84-95.

A preparation with the burnt pith of the tuvaraka tree, to be employed in eye diseases, is added (49.90c-f); ⁷³⁷ tuvaraka oil should be used every other day during a month in order to achieve its full effect (49.91); more tuvaraka preparations are described (49.92-98).

The section that follows is concerned with the preparation of bhallātaka fruits, the ways this preparation may be used, and its effects (49.99); ⁷³⁸ the gradual increase of the dose (49.100–101); the preparation of bhallātaka juice by the puṭapāka procedure (49.102) ⁷³⁹ and the way it should be used (49.103); preparations with bhallātaka oil

(49.104-105).

A.s.U.49.106-114 = A.h.U.39.75-83.

A section on pippalīrasāyana follows.

 $A.s.U.49.115-121 = A.h.U.39.96-102.^{740}$

The chapter continues with preparations containing vidanga (49.122),⁷⁴¹ alambuṣā (49.123–125), and bākucī, also called avalguja (49.126–136).

A.s.U.49.137-139 = A.h.U.39.107-109.

A.s.U.49.140 is in conformity with A.h.U.39.110.

More preparations with bākucī, also called somarājī and śaśiśakala, follow; prapunāṭa fruits may be used in the same way (49.141-143), as well as kṛmiripu (= vidanga), dahana (= citraka) and sphotakṛt (= bhallāṭaka) (49.144).

The bākucī- or somarājīkalpa proceeds with recipes in which bākucī is combined with other medicinal substances in order to achieve specific effects (49.145–154). A verse and a prose passage on the virtues of bākucī end this kalpa (49.155–156).

A short section on preparations with the plant called haimavatī⁷⁴² (49.157–159) precedes a long one devoted to garlic (lasunakalpa; 49.160–213).

A.s.U.49.160 = A.h.U.39, additional verse between 110 and 111.

A.s.U.49.161-163cd = A.h.U.39.111-113.

An added ardhaśloka says that garlic cures disorders arising in patients suffering from raktapitta (49.163ef). Divergent opinions are referred to concerning the duration of a treatment with garlic preparations (49.164).

A.s.U.49.165-172 = A.h.U.39.114-121.

Two verses on the role of attractive women during the course of treatment are added (49.173–174).

A.s.U.49.175 = A.h.U.39.122.

Garlic preparations should never be ingested in haste, because this would lead to particular disorders (49.176).

A.s.U.49.177 = A.h.U.39.123.

The diet to be prescribed to someone with a flaming digestive fire (due to garlic) (49.178–179).

A.s.U.49.180 = A.h.U.39.124

Drinks are mentioned which are suitable to patients not accustomed to alcoholic beverages (49.181).

A.s.U.49.182 = A.h.U.39.125.

Added verses deal with particular preparations with specific effects (49.183-194). A.s.U.49.195 = A.h.U.39.126.

Additional verses are concerned with more prescriptions (49.196–203).

A method enabling brāhmaṇas to use garlic as a medicine is described (49.204). A.s. IJ.49.205 = A.h. IJ.39.127.

A laśunāsava is mentioned, prepared by Nārada for Uddhava's use (49.206).⁷⁴³

Things to be avoided by those using garlic preparations are enumerated (49.207). In conjunction with oleation, garlic becomes heavier (49.208). At the end of the treatment, a mild purgative should be prescribed in order to avoid excitation of pitta (49.209).

A.s.U.49.210 = A.h.U.39.128.

A long section (49.211–280) is added to the text of the *Hrdaya*. The first part of this section is about diseases in which the use of garlic preparations is contra-indicated (49.211) and about the general effects of garlic (49.212–213). The remaining part is devoted to a number of kalpas.

The palāṇḍukalpa (49.214–223) deals with: next to garlic, palāṇḍu (onion) is the best drug against vāta disorders; the life of the overlord of the Śakas is dependent on it (49.214); the attractiveness of Śaka women is also due to palāṇḍu (49.215); ⁷⁴⁴ the general effects of palāṇḍu (49.216); its effects when used as a food item; it cures disorders accompanying (pra)meha (49.217); the juice of palāṇḍu may be used in the same way as that of garlic (49.218); various ways of using the drug (49.219–222); the beneficial effects of palāṇḍu juice (49.223).

The kukkuṭīkalpa (49.224–235) is about: the mythical origin of this plant which turns men into divine beings, even in the present age of the world (49.224); the characteristics of kukkuṭī (49.225); its general effects on the human organism (49.226); its uses and effects when administered during a kuṭīprāveśika rasāyana procedure (49. 227–229); more rules about the correct employment; the wonderful results (49.230–231); another way of using kukkuṭī; longevity will follow after taking the preparation for a full month (49.232); prescriptions with kukkuṭī which cure timira and vāta disorders (49.233), antravṛddhi (49.234), and all kinds of diseases (49.235).

The kañcukīkalpa (49.236–256) deals with: the description of the plant called kañcukī (49.236); the way it should be used in a kuṭīprāveśika rasāyana procedure; its effects after one, two, and three weeks (49.237–240); prescriptions with kañcukī curative of all kinds of diseases (49.241), and curative of skin diseases and timira (49.242); the formula of saptāmṛtacūma, recommended in all kinds of diseases (49.243–245); another recipe having rasāyana effects (49.246–247); the formula of martyāmṛtaghṛta (49.248–250); the formula of somāmṛtaghṛta (49.251–256).

The guggulukalpa (49.257–280) deals with: the mythical origin of guggulu; the effect of this substance on the gods (49.257–258); its general effects on human beings (49.259); the description of the best kind of guggulu, called mahiṣākṣa (49.260–261cd); the maximum daily dose is one pala; the total quantity used by an individual should not exceed a tulā (= one hundred pala) (49.261ef); a mantra, taught by Ātreya, that should accompany the use of guggulu (49.262–263); guggulu, in combination with the drugs of the groups called mahat- and laghupañcamūla, and particular fluids, cures vāta and kapha diseases (49.264–265); in combination with other drugs, it cures particular diseases (49.266–276); someone who uses, in the proper way, one hundred pala of the substance, need not fear an untimely death, disease, and old age (49.277); guggulu should be used in combination with drugs counteracting a particular doṣa or disease (49.278); it may also be used in the same way as śilājatu (49.279); diseases brought about by an excessive use of guggulu; in general, guggulu should not be prescribed in the presence of one of these diseases (49.280).

The next kalpa, also found in the Hrdaya, is devoted to silajatu (49.281–329). A.s. U.49.281 = A.h. U.39.130.

Śilājatu, which pacifies all dosas and destroys all diseases, possesses properties which are characteristic of the type of rocks from which it exudes (49.282).

A.s.U.49.283-284 = A.h.U.39.131-132.

Steeped in the decoction of particular medicinal plants, śilājatu cures diseases brought about by vāta (49.285), pitta (49.286), kapha (49.287), vāta and pitta (49.288), vāta and kapha (49.289), pitta and kapha (49.290). The preparation of śilājatu for cases in which a combination of three dosas is active is described (49.291).

A.s.U.49.292-300ab = A.h.U.39.133-141ab.

An ardhaśloka is added (49.300cd).

Things to be avoided after taking the prescription are listed (49.301).

A.s.U.49.302ab = A.h.U.39.141cd.

The kinds of water to be used are mentioned (49.302cd).

Added verses (49.303–325) deal with: compound recipes containing śilājatu against particular diseases (49.303–308); the preparation of śivā guṭikā and its actions (49.309-325). 745

A.s.U.49.326 = A.h.U.39.142.

The wonderful effects of using one hundred (49.327) or even one thousand pala (49.328) of silājatu are described.

The mythical origin of śilā jatu is referred to again at the end of this kalpa (49.329). Some kalpa sections are added (49.330–364).

The first one, devoted to tāpya (= mākṣika), deals with: the origin of the two varieties of tāpya: cold-coloured and silver-coloured, ⁷⁴⁶ their properties; articles of diet, etc., to be avoided during the use of tāpya as a medicine (49.330–332); prescriptions containing mākṣikadhātu (= tāpya) which are effective against particular disorders, confer longevity, etc. (49.333–340). ⁷⁴⁷

The second kalpa is devoted to the plant called mahisavallarī, vṛddhadāraka, or vellarikā. This plant is described (49.341–342), followed by the way its crushed roots should be prepared for medicinal use; a linctus should be made; milk has to be drunk after taking this medicine, and, after digestion, milk and ghee; the effects are mentioned (49.343–346); the effects that can be expected when vṛddhadāraka is used in combination with aśvagandhā (49.347–348); (śatā)varī and gokṣuraka may replace aśvagandhā (49.349); recipes with the roots of vṛddhadāraka, in combination with other medicinal substances, are described (49.350–357), followed by prescriptions with the juice from vṛddhadāraka fruits (49.358–362).

Two verses describe a preparation containing kuṣṭha as the main drug (49.363–364).

 $A.s.U.49.365-367 = A.h.U.39.143-145.^{748}$

Recipes to be used in vātātapika rasāyana follow (49.368-375).

A.s.U.49.376 = A.h.U.39.147.

One recipe is added (49.377).749

A.s.U.49.378 = A.h.U.39.149.

Four recipes are added (49.379-383).750

A.s.U.49.384 = A.h.U.39.151.

Two recipes are added (49.385-386).751

A.s.U.49.387-391 = A.h.U.39.154-158.752

A.s.U.49.392 = A.h.U.39.161.753

One recipe is added (49.393).

A.s.U.49.394-397 = A.h.U.39.169-172.

One verse is added to the formula of nārasimhaghrta (49.398).754

A.s.U.49.399-401 = A.h.U.39.174-176.

One recipe is added (49.402).

A.s.U.49.403 = A.h.U.39.177.

Some verses on rasāyana in general are added (49.404-411).

A.s.U.49.412 = A.h.U.39.178

Some verses on general precepts follow (49.413-414).

A.s.U.49.415-417 = A.h.U.39.179-181.

Two verses declaring that the objectives of rasāyana are reached, without the use of the kuṭīprāveśika procedure, by devoted cowherds, living on milk and ghee in cowpens (goṣṭha) filled with lowing and frisking calves, end the chapter (49.418-419).⁷⁵⁵

Chapter fifty (vājīkaraṇavidhi), corresponding to the chapter of the same title of the *Hrdaya* (U.40), is in verse.

A.s.U.50.2-3 = A.h.U.40.1-3.

A number of added verses are about the importance of sexual life and procreation; approdisiacs, which increase semen, will therefore be dealt with (50.4–10). ⁷⁵⁶

A.s.U.5•.11 = A.h.U.40.6.

Causes of impotency are enumerated (50.12–14). The uncertain correlations between physical qualities on the one hand, potency and fertility on the other, are stressed (50.15–17). Prescriptions will therefore be given which increase the potency of weak ones, and make more potent still those who are strong and able to enjoy sexual activity (50.18).

 $A.s.U.50.19-20 = A.h.U.40.7-8.^{757}$

A.s.U.50.21-29 = A.h.U.40.12cd-21ab.

Recipes for aphrodisiacs are added (50.30-40).⁷⁵⁸

A.s.U.50.41-44 = A.h.U.40.26-30ab.

Two recipes are added (50.45-46).

A.s.U.50.47 = A.h.U.40.31cd-32.

More recipes are added (50.48-51); the recipes of śatāvarīghṛta (50.52-55) and jīvakādighrta (50.56-57) are given.

Numerous prescriptions come next (50.58-113).⁷⁵⁹

A.s.U.50.114-115 = A.h.U.40.35-36.760

A.s.U.50.116 = A.h.U.40.38.

A series of verses are about attractive women as the best aphrodisiacs (50.117–123). ⁷⁶¹ Other things similarly stimulating are described (50.124–135). ⁷⁶² Verses on vājīkarana in general conclude this section (50.136–143).

Some verses introduce the next subject, i.e., the tantray uktis (50.144-149).

The tantrayuktis are listed (50.150–153). The effect of their study is like that of the sun's rays on a closed lotus flower and that of a lamp in a house (50.154). Knowledge of the tantrayuktis is a requirement for the understanding of a scientific treatise (50.155). Their functions are elucidated (50.156–157). The tantrayuktis should be at-

6 Uttarasthāna

593

tentively studied (50.158).

Themedical science is extolled. Conscientious practitioners are praised, quacks reviled (50.158–175).

An intelligent, compassionate and virtuous physician ought to be honoured as the Aśvins were honoured by Indra (50.176). The healing feats of the Aśvins are referred to. Physicians are comparable to these deities and deserve honour on the same grounds (50.177-184). 763

The characteristics of properly behaving medical practitioners are described and the ethical code they ought to observe is discussed (50.185-201). ⁷⁶⁴

Brahmā transmitted the āyurveda, originally consisting of one hundred thousand verses; Agniveśa and other sages composed, based on this āyurveda, their own treatises, devoted to a particular branch of the medical art (50.202).

Vāgbhaṭa introduces himself: he bears the same name as his grandfather, who was an eminent physician; he is a son of Sinhagupta and was born in Sindhu(deśa). He got his training in medicine from his guru, Avalokita, and his father (50.203–204). The treatise (i.e., the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha) he composed covers the essentials of the whole medical science (50.205–206). The usefulness of the work is explained and the hope expressed that it may serve to free the world from disease (50.207–211).

Part 5 Vāgbhaṭa

Chapter 1 Vagbhata and the works ascribed to him

Authors called Vagbhata, their works, and their identities

Vāgbhaṭa is a fairly common name in Sanskrit literature. Many works are attributed to authors of this or a closely related appellation. ¹

The two most important medical treatises ascribed to a Vāgbhaṭa are the Aṣṭā-ngasaṃgraha and Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā. The Rasaratnasamuccaya, an iatrochemical work, is the third composition to be mentioned among those with which a Vāgbhaṭa is credited.

Other medical works said to have been written by a Vāgbhaṭa are: an autocommentary on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā, called Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayavaiḍūryakabhāṣya; ³ two more commentaries, called Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayadīpikā⁴ and Hṛdayaṭippaṇa; ⁵ the Aṣṭāṅganighaṇṭu; ⁶ the Aṣṭāṅgasāra; ħ the Aṣṭāṅgavatāra; ħ a Bhāvaprakāśa; ీ the Dvādaśārthanirūpaṇa; ħ a Kālajūāna; ħ the Padārthacandrikā; ħ the Śāstradarpaṇa; ħ a Śataślokī; ħ a Vāgbhaṭā; ħ the Vāgbhaṭāya; ħ the Vābaṭanighaṇṭu; ħ a Vamanakalpa. ħ

An author called Bāhaṭa is credited with a Rasamūlikānighaṇṭu, ¹⁹ a Bāhaṭa with a Saṇṇṇpātanidānacikitsā. ²⁶ A Bāhaṭagrantha is, in spite of its title, not by an author called Bāhaṭa. ²¹

This chapter will be devoted to the author or authors of the Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha and Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṇhitā. The other works mentioned are of less concern in the present context or are discussed elsewhere.

The two main treatises face us with the complex problem whether they were composed by one and the same person, by two namesakes, or even by unknown authors. The controversial nature of this issue, to be discussed later, makes it desirable to keep to the texts as closely as possible.

The colophons of most editions of both Samgraha and Hṛdaya give Vāgbhaṭa, son of Siṃhagupta, as their author. ²² The unreliability of colophons, which may have been added later, makes them unsuitable to establish the point of authorship. ²³ Actually, the name of the author does not appear even a single time in the Hṛdaya. The Samgraha, on the other hand, contains some verses, occurring towards its close (U.50.203–204), which constitute the only source of direct information on the one who may have written this large treatise. These verses state: "The excellent physician Vāgbhaṭa was my paternal grandfather; my name is the same as his; my grandfather's son was Siṃhagupta, whose son I am; my native country is the land of the Sindhu people; ²⁴ I obtained my knowledge (pratibhā) ²⁵ from my preceptor (guru), Avalokita, ²⁶ and from my father, who was an even more venerable (gurutara) preceptor to me; based on this knowl-

edge, and after studying (vilocana) numerous medical works, ²⁷ I composed (this) well-arranged exposition (vinirṇaya)²⁸ (of the medical science) according to its division into (eight) branches". ²⁹

These meagre facts have led to a host of discussions.

One of the disputed points is the original form of the author's name. Although he calls himself Vāgbhaṭa at the end of the Saṃgraha, variants of his name are found in many a later treatise, in commentaries, etc. The most common of these variants, Vā-hata³⁰ (or Bāhata), is particularly frequent in MSS and treatises from southern India. ³¹

Opinions are divided on the issue whether Vāgbhaṭa should be regarded as the original name, or Vāhaṭa, secondarily sanskritized to Vāgbhaṭa. Hilgenberg and Kirfel³² did not want to exclude the latter option; C. Vogel seems to give it his preference.³³ P.V. Sharma,³⁴ on the other hand, is strongly in favour of the former choice, being convinced that the author's own statements are trustworthy.

No information is available on the Vāgbhaṭa, who was the father of Siṃhagupta and grandfather of the Vāgbhaṭa of the Saṃgraha, 35 except for the fact that he was a physician. In spite of this, G. Hāldār asserted that this Vāgbhaṭa, whom he designates as Vāgbhaṭa I and assigns to the second century A.D., was the author of a Smṛtinibandha and Vaidyakanighaṇṭu. 36 This Vāgbhaṭa I is reported to have divided the medical science into ten branches: dravyābhidhāna, rugviniścaya, kāyasaukhyasaṃpādana, śalyavidyā, bhūtanigraha, viṣapratīkāra, bālopacāra, rasāyana, śālākyatantra, and vṛṣya. His Smṛtinibandha is said to have been famous and to be quoted repeatedly in Aparārka's Yājñavalk yadharmaśāstranibandha. 37 Grammar was the third branch of learning he mastered, according to G. Hāldār, who claimed that Bhartṛhari refers to this Vāgbhaṭa in his Mahābhāṣyadīpikā. 38

The name of Vāgbhaṭa's father is Siṃhagupta in the text of the Saṇgraha and most of the colophons of the MSS and editions of Saṇgraha and Hṛdaya. Niścala refers, when quoting the Hṛdaya, to Vāgbhaṭa as the son of Siṃhagupta, ³⁹ and calls him Vāgbhaṭagupta. ⁴⁰The form Saṅghagupta, a variant of Siṃhagupta in some of the MSS and editions of the Rasaratnasamuccaya, attributed to a Vāgbhaṭa, is occasionally found in MSS of the Hṛdaya. ⁴¹ Vāgbhaṭa's father is also called Saṅghagupta by the Hṛdyākāra, a commentator on the Hṛdaya. ⁴² One MS ⁴³ employs three variants of the name, Saṅgagupta, Saṅgupta and Siṃhagupta. This MS, which may date from the late eighteenth century at its earliest, is remarkable in mentioning a Ravigupta as the grandfather of either Siṃhagupta or a Vāgbhaṭa. ⁴⁴

The Tibetan translation of the *Hṛdaya* gives either Sen-ge sbas-pa (Siṃhagupta) or Dge-hdun gsan-ba (Saṅghaguhya) as the name of Vāgbhaṭa's father, according to G. Huth, ⁴⁵ but C. Vogel ⁴⁶ records the former only. One MS of the *Hṛdaya* ⁴⁷ has a colophon mentioning Nrsimhagupta as Vāgbhaṭa's father.

Sodhala's Gadanigraha contains a formula 48 attributed to a Simhagupta, whom G. Hāldār'49 regards as identical with Vāgbhaṭa's father, who, obviously, in Hāldār's view, wrote a medical treatise. Some of the ingredients of the recipe prove that it cannot be from a rather early source. 50

The information at the end of the Samgraha shows that its author issued from a family of physicians.⁵¹ settled in Sindh at the time of his birth.

A detail, found in Niścalakara's *Ratnaprabhā*, induced D.Ch. Bhattacharyya to speculate on the social status of Vāgbhaṭa's family. Niścala designates, once only in his commentary, ⁵² Vāgbhaṭa as a royal sage (rājarṣi). D.Ch. Bhattacharyya, joining this isolated fact to another scrap, namely Jejjaṭa's references to his teacher, also a Vāgbhaṭa, as the lord (pati) of Mahājahnu, concluded, rather rashly, that the author of *Saṃgraha* and *Hṛdaya* was the chief (rājan) of a small kingdom in Sindh.⁵³

It has often been assumed that Vāgbhata was not only born in Sindh, but also spent his life there. ⁵⁴ This point cannot be settled with any certainty. The explicit statement by the author himself that he was born in Sindh does not imply that he remained in that region. His migration to another area later in life can therefore not be excluded.

This uncertainty proved to be a fertile soil for the cultivation of hypotheses.

P.V. Sharma⁵⁵ advanced a number of arguments in favour of the hypothesis that Vāgbhaṭa spent part of his life in Sindh and moved to Ujjayinī or some place near this town later. Vāgbhaṭa's acquaintance with Sindh is deduced from a verse (A.s.Ci.9.37) asserting that a burning sensation and thirst will disappear when recollecting the way of playing with water of the elephants in Sindh. Additional arguments are a reference to añjana as a substance found in or near the river Sindh (A.s.Sū.8.59) and some verses mentioning the Śakas⁵⁶ (A.s.U.49.214–215).⁵⁷

These details are insufficient to prove that Vāgbhaṭa remained in Sindh for some time. Dietary habits of the people living in Sindh and of the Śakas are referred to in the Carakasanhitā; 58 the river Sindhu is mentioned in the Suśrutasamhitā; 59

The migration from Sindh to another region is inferred from the statement that one should leave a country where a king reigns and people abound who do not respect the dharma (A.s.Sū.8.2) and from a number of references to a beautiful and prosperous country. ⁶⁰ P.V. Sharma suggests that Vāgbhata left his native country, which had suffered from the incursions of foreign peoples, after Yaśodharman had defeated these foreigners in A.D. 533. These peoples, supposed to be the Hūṇas, are described in Yaśodharman's records as ruled by vicious kings transgressing the rules of good conduct. ⁶¹

Again, these references are not convincing at all, being vague and of a type that may be found in any literary work. Moreover, the Hūṇas, different from the Śakas, 62 are absent from the Samgraha.

P.V. Sharma's hypothesis that Vāgbhaṭa went to Ujjayinī⁶³ is partly based on the idea that this city was Yaśodharman's capital, from where he reigned over his kingdom from A.D. 533–583.⁶⁴ P.V. Sharma also takes for granted the identity of this king with the Vikramāditya of Ujjayinī who was the patron of the famous poet Kālidāsa and other well-known writers.⁶⁵

No contemporary record, however, gives Yaśodharman the title of Vikramāditya. 66 Kālidāsa's patron, Vikramāditya of Ujjayinī, subdued the Śakas, not the Hūṇas; he is a different king, though often confused with Yaśodharman. Moreover, thecity associated with Yaśodharman is Daśapura (or Mandasor), not Ujjayinī. 67

Other arguments in favour of Vāgbhaṭa's choice to come to Ujjayinī are, in P.V. Sharma's opinion, his reference to Avanti,⁶⁸ the name of the region where the city is situated, and his acquaintance with a substance called avantisoma.⁶⁹

Avanti is, however, mentioned in a list of peoples and countries, which weakens the argument, and Avanti's capital, Ujjayinī, is nowhere referred to in the Samgraha. The inhabitants of Avanti, the Āvantikas, are present in a similar list found in the Carakasamhitā. The Suśrutasamhitā is acquainted with Prācyāvanti and Aparāvanti.

Finally, P.V. Sharma points to the large number of borrowings from Vagbhata in the works of Sodhala, who was a resident of Avanti or the nearby Guiarat.

Borrowings from the Sangraha are, however, not only found in Sodhala's writings, but also, for example, in Vrnda's Siddhayoga and in the Cakradatta.

In sum, none of the evidence carries conviction, which leaves open the question where Vāgbhata chose to live.

A rather late Indian tradition, represented in Merutunga's *Prabandhacintāmaṇi*, ⁷² an untrustworthy work stuffed with anachronisms, ⁷³ presents two Vāgbhaṭas, called Bṛhad- and Laghubāhaḍa, related to each other as father-in-law and son-in-law. They appear in the story as physicians at the court of king Bhoja of Dhārā. The elder of the two, said to be well read in medical treatises, is credited with a work called Vāgbhaṭa, based on his own experience. Wonderful tales are told by Merutunga, in particular about the elder physician.

A noteworthy fact, in spite of the unreliability of Merutunga, remains his being acquainted with the tradition of an older and a younger Vāgbhata.

The only Western historian of Indian medicine not to dismiss these stories of the *Prabandhacintāmaṇi* was P. Cordier, ⁷⁴ who, earlier, ⁷⁵ had tried to defend that Vāgbhaṭa lived during the reign of Jayasiṃha, king of Kaśmīr (A.D. 1196–1218). The latter view found its origin in a passage, thought to be authentic, of the *Rājataraṇgiṇī*, saying that the Buddhist (paramabauddha) Vāgbhaṭācārya, son of Siṃhagupta, was a contemporary of Jayasiṃha.

Faced with the critical remarks of J. Jolly, 76 who insisted on the absence of the passage in the printed texts of the $R\bar{a}$ jatarangi $n\bar{n}$ and confronted him with the expert knowledge of G. Bühler, Cordier realized that his hypothesis had become untenable. The alternative he adopted proved to be equally indefensible.

The collapse of Cordier's tentatives to place the scene of Vāgbhaṭa's activities at the court of king Bhoja of Dhārā or in Kaśmīr during the rule of king Jayasiṃha leaves the problem of Vāgbhaṭa's residence still unsettled.

The only fixed point is the information provided by himself that he was born in Sindh.

C. Vogel⁷⁷ regards as evidence confirming that Vāgbhaṭa hails from North India the opinion that seeing a Drāviḍa or an Āndhra in one's dream is a bad omen.⁷⁸ He also draws attention to a remark about the soma-like and beneficial medicinal herbs growing in the Himālayas and the fiery and unwholesome character of herbs growing in the Vindhya mountains,⁷⁹ but this contrast between the properties of medicinal substances coming from the Himālayas and the Vindhya mountains is not peculiar to Saṃgraha and Hrdaya at all, being found in the Carakasamhitā too.⁸⁰

Vāgbhata is also regarded as a resident of the North, in particular Sindh, by G. Hāldār. 81 This scholar drafted a highly imaginative theory about a Vāgbhata, who

wrote the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha, the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā, a work intermediate between the two, and the Rasaratnasamuccaya. G. Hāldār wanted to see this author attached to the court of Śaka kings, whose domain included Sindh. The kings he was thinking of are Vāsudeva, the son of Huviṣka, and Kāpālin, the son of Vāsudeva, who ruled in the second and third centuries A.D. G. Hāldār believed that both kings were experts in rasaśāstra and the authors of a Vāsudevasaṃhitā and Rasarājamahodadhi respectively. Vāgbhaṭa, a specialist in rasāyana and rasaśāstra himself, was, in G. Hāldār's view, obviously the right person to hold the office of antaraṅga at the court of these kings, who are referred to as śakādhipati in the Samgraha.

An equally or even more inventive theory was developed by R. Śāstrī, 82 who was convinced that Vāgbhaṭa, author of Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya, lived during the decline of the Gupta dynasty, in the period of the incursions of the Hūṇas, and was born in Sindh, during the reign of Kumāragupta I, in A.D. 420. Together with large numbers of the inhabitants of the region, he fled to Kaśmīr, where he composed his two medical treatises. His flight was precipitated by a tragic incident: his both learned and beautiful daughter had been taken by force by one of the Hūṇa chiefs, who had fallen in love with her. R. Śāstrī contrived to establish that the incident took place when Vāgbhaṭa was thirty-seven years of age. He also managed to determine that he died in A.D. 508, at the end of the reign of Vainyagupta, also called Tathāgatagupta.

R. Śāstrī⁸³ argued that Vāgbhaṭa cannot have lived during the reign of Candragupta Vikramāditya, because this king's rule was firmly established in the western parts of India. There would have been no incentive to migrate to Kaśmīr in that period. The political stability continued during Kumāragupta's reign, but new incursions of Śakas occurred during the reigns of his successors, Skandagupta and Samudragupta. Vāgbhaṭa fled the country due to the troubles in Skandagupta's period of rule.

Traditions current in Kerala see in a Vāgbhaṭa, who is usually regarded as the author of both Samgraha and Hṛdaya, the teacher of Jejjaṭa and Indu. 84 As discussed in the sections devoted to these commentators, these traditions are not worthy of credit.

Another Vāgbhaṭa sometimes confused with the author of the Samgraha, Hṛdaya, or both, need not seriously be considered in the present context. This Vāgbhaṭa appears as the father of Tīsaṭa, the author of the Cikitsākalikā, in the untrustworthy colophons of a number of MSS of that treatise. 85

Some Indian traditions make Vāgbhaṭa into a mythically radiant figure. He is sometimes regarded as an incarnation of Dhanvantari or identified with one of the fourteen gems obtained when the ocean was churned. Others consider him to be an incarnation of Gautama Buddha. Re Another legend tells that Vāgbhaṭa was called by Rāvaṇa to treat his brother Kumbhakarṇa. Binod Lall Sen regarded him as the physician of Yudhiṣṭhira, the eldest of the Pāṇ�ava brothers. Re A legend about Vāgbhaṭa relates that Dhanvantari, wanting to inquire into the competence of practising physicians, took the form of a bird, and, wandering to the houses of well-known vaidyas, asked ko 'ruk (who is free from disease)? The only one to give a satisfactory answer was Vāgbhaṭa, who replied: hitabhuk (someone eating wholesome food), mitabhuk (who eats moderately), ašākabhuk (who does not eat vegetables).

The Hārītasamhitā describes Vāgbhata as the representative of the medical science

in the Kaliyuga. 90

An entirely different tradition paints him as a voluptuous brāhmaṇa, given to all soits of revelries, and lost in love with a low-caste woman. 91

Some well-known Vāgbhaṭas of Sanskrit literature are so clearly distinct that they cannot easily be mistaken for the medical writer, although, nevertheless, this sometimes happens to be the case.

Literary works attributed to authors called Vāgbhaṭā are the Vāgbhaṭālaṃkāra and Kāvyānuśāsana; a third composition often mentioned is the Neminirvāna.

The *Vāgbhaṭālaṇkāra*, a treatise on poetics, was written by a *Vāgbhaṭa*, who was a Jaina and the son of Soma; he probably belongs to the first half of the twelfth century. 92 The author of the *Kāvyānuśāsana*, also a work on poetics, was a son of Nemikumāra and lived later, in the thirteenth or fifteenth century. 93 The *Neminirvāṇa*, a mahākāvya, may be by the *Vāgbhaṭa* who wrote the *Vāgbhaṭālaṃkāra*. 94

Titles of other works ascribed to authors called Vāgbhaṭa are: Alaṃkāratilaka, ⁹⁵ Chando'nuśāsana (a treatise on metrics), ⁹⁶ Laghu jātaka, ⁹⁷ Prākṛtapiṅgala, ⁹⁸ Rṣabhadevacarita (a mahākāvya), ⁹⁹ Śabdārthacandrikā, ¹⁰⁰ Śṛṅgāratilaka, ¹⁰¹ and Vāgbhaṭako-śa. ¹⁰²

A $V\bar{a}gbhaṭasmrtisamgraha$, now lost, is quoted by Aparārka in his commentary on the $Y\bar{a}j\bar{n}avalk$ yasmrti. ¹⁰³

The *Kavikalpalatā*, a work of Devendra or Devesvara, son of a Vāgbhaṭa, is sometimes claimed to be by a Vāgbhaṭa. 104

The religious persuasion of Vāgbhata

After this digression on the Vāgbhaṭas known in Sanskrit literature, we return to the subject of the biography of the medical author. As we have seen, nothing definite is known, which did not prevent speculations to proliferate.

One piece of information has been left for discussion, namely the religious persuasion and influence of Vāgbhata's first teacher in medicine, Avalokita. The name of this guru is usually thought to indicate that he was a Buddhist, which raises the question of Vāgbhata's own religion, a hotly debated issue.

The problems concerning this point do not form such a hopeless muddle as might appear from the secondary literature. A proper handling of these problems requires first of all that the data derived from the Samgraha are carefully kept apart from those coming from the Hrdaya. Since, so far, evidence is dealt with that can throw light on the author of the Samgraha, the material occurring in that work will be presented first and compared with that found in the Hrdaya.

The main concern of many scholars attracted to a study of the religious material found in the *Samgraha* has been the identification of traces of Buddhism, or the reasoning away of supposedly Buddhist elements, depending on attitudes and beliefs of these scholars themselves. Extensive discussions and disagreeing interpretations have been the unavoidable result.

Buddhist elements that can hardly be questioned are, first of all, a series of names known from the Buddhist pantheon.

These names are: Aparājitā ¹⁰⁵ (A.s.Ci.2.144; ¹⁰⁶ U.4.18); ¹⁰⁷ Āryatārā ¹⁰⁸ (Sū.8. 59 ¹⁰⁹ and 28.34; ¹¹⁰ Ci.2.144); ¹¹¹ Āryāparājitā ¹¹² (U.1.20); ¹¹³ Āryāparaśabarī ¹¹⁴ (U.1.20); ¹¹⁵ Āryāvalokita ¹¹⁶ (Sū.28.34; ¹¹⁷ Ci.2.144; ¹¹⁸ U.8.57); ¹¹⁹ Āryāvalokite-śvara ¹²⁰ (Sū.8.59); ¹²¹ Bhaiṣa jyaguru ¹²² ((Sū.27, mantra between 12 and 13); ¹²³ Parnaśabarī ¹²⁴ ((Sū.28.23; ¹²⁵ Ci.2.144); ¹²⁶ Ratnaketu ¹²⁷ (U.1.19). ¹²⁸

The names found in this list are undoubtedly Buddhist, but one of them, found in both Samgraha and Hṛdaya, namely Dvādaśabhuja Īśvara Āryāvalokita Nātha, is sometimes given another meaning. Aruṇadatta is completely silent and Indu refrains from twisting the meaning, but the majority of the commentators prefer a Hinduist interpretation. Candranandana gives Devadeveśa as the equivalent of Nātha. Śivadāsasena remarks that the Āryā, joined to Avalokita, is Pārvatī, which implies that Avalokita is Śiva. The Kairalī commentary says, in the same vein, that the deity referred to is Mahādeva (= Śiva), accompanied by his consort Āryā (= Pārvatī). P.V. Sharma ¹²⁹ argues that Dvādaśabhuja Īśvara should not be connected with Āryāvalokita; he regards the former deity as Kārttikeya, who is described as having six heads and twelve arms in the Mahābhārata. ¹³⁰

Apart from these names, some titles and epithets are of a Buddhist character. The title Arhant is given to Bhaiṣa jyaguru in the mantra addressed to him. ¹³¹ The same title is found in anothermantra (A.s.Sū.8.60) that belongs to a long description, mainly in prose, of the preparation and application of a wonderful collyrium (añjana), called sarvārthasiddhānjana (A.s.Sū.58–61). The being addressed in the mantra, also called a dhāriṇī in the text, is Cakṣuḥpariśodhanarāja, i.e., the (divine) king who completely purifies the eyes, namely the eyes of prajñā, jñāna and vijñāna. This being is obviously a healing Buddha, for he is called Tathāgata and Samyaksambuddha.

The preparation of the collyrium involves a complicated ritual, which, being composed of some Buddhist and many Hindu elements, is a fine example of the religious syncretism of the Astāngasamgraha.

Two problematic names of deities are Jina and Jinasuta, mentioned in a verse (A.s.Ci.21.135) declaring that paying homage to brāhmaṇas, one's gurus and the gods, benevolence (maitrī) to all living beings, and adoration of Jina, Jinasuta, Tārā and Bhāskara, eradicate the disease called kuṣṭha. Indu says in his comments that Jina is the Buddha; he interprets jinasuta in the compound as indicating a plural and regards these Jinasutas as Avalokiteśvara and others. ¹³²

Tārā, mentioned once (A.s.Ci.21.135), ¹³³ may be either the Buddhist or the Hindu deity of that name. ¹³⁴ The context – the series Jina, Jinasuta, Tārā, Bhāskara – may be in favour of coupling her with Bhāskara. On the other hand, it must be conceded that Tārā is very frequently met with in Buddhist literature and that she may be the same as Āryatārā. ¹³⁵

Aparājita, however, is a deity found only in the Hinduist mantras of a chapter on rituals against grahas. 136

Two decidedly Buddhist dhāriṇīs are the māyūrī and mahāmāyūrī. Both are employed, together with the āryāratnaketudhāriṇī and a Hinduist śāntikarınan, in the treatment of vraṇa (A.s.U.1.19). ¹³⁷ The mahāvidyā called māyūrī, i.e., the mahāmāyūrī, is, along with the invocation of Hindu deities, used against bhūtas (A.s.U.8.58). ¹³⁸

The mantra called tathāgatoṣnīṣa ¹³⁹ is, together with another one, called sarvavyādhicikitsita, ¹⁴⁰ recommended as effective against fevers (A.s.Ci.2.145). The first is obviously a Buddhist mantra, the second one may be Buddhist, Hinduist, or even deliberately ambiguous.

The *Hṛdaya* has been studied as diligently, or even more so, than the *Saṃgraha* in search of features pointing to Buddhist influence.

Names of figures from the Buddhist pantheon found in the *Hrdaya* are: Āryāvalokita (U.5.50) ¹⁴¹ and Bhaisa iyaguru (Sū.18, mantra between 17 and 18). ¹⁴²

This meagre harvest shows unmistakably the degree of discongruity between Samgraha and Hrdaya.

The Dvādasabhuja Īsvara Āryāvalokita Nātha, known from the Saṃgraha, is met with in the Hrdaya too (U.5.50). The same applies to the epithets of Bhaisajyaguru: Arhant, Tathāgata, Saṃyaksaṃbuddha, Vaiḍūryaprabharāja.

The names Jina and Jinasuta occur in a verse present in some of the MSS and editions of the *Hrdaya*, but are rather often replaced by Śiva and Śivasuta (Ci.19.98). ¹⁴³ Indu's Śaśilekhā proves that he read Jina and Jinasuta and interpreted these figures in a Buddhist vein. Candranandana was acquainted with the readings Jina and Jinasuta, but comments, nevertheless, that Śivasuta is Śrīganeśa. ¹⁴⁴ Arunadatta read Śiva and Śivasuta, which may mean that the original names were finally changed.

Jina is found a second time in the *Hrdaya* (U.37.44) as the name of the one who devised a particular antidote. Arunadatta only remarks that he is the Bhagavant Jina; Śivadāsasena regards him as the Bhagavant Buddha, the *Kairalī* as Buddhamuni. 145

This mention of Jina in a verse of the *Hṛdaya* would be the more noteworthy, if it proved to be absent from the *Saṇgraha*, ¹⁴⁶ on account of the much more scanty references to Buddhist figures in the former when compared with the latter. ¹⁴⁷

Tārā's name occurs in the *Hṛdaya* (Ci.19.98) in a verse that also forms part of the *Saṃgraha* (Ci.21.135).

Gaurī, mentioned in a mantra of the *Hrdaya* that accompanies the preparation of the antidote called candrodaya (U.35.29cd-30), is regarded as the Yellow Tārā by P. Cordier. ¹⁴⁸ This interpretation cannot unreservedly be accepted, on account of the presence in the same mantra of Vaidūryamātar, Gāndhārī, ¹⁴⁹ Cāṇdālī, Mātangī, and Harimāyī, names which may be partly Buddhist, partly Hinduist. ¹⁵⁰ The rituals connected with the preparation of the candrodaya agada are of a syncretistic nature; a mantra, preceding the one discussed, is addressed to Puruṣasiṃha (= Narasiṃha) and Nārāyaṇa; an additional ardhaśloka declares that Indra conquered Vṛtra thanks to the virtues of this drug.

The mahāvidyā called māyūrī is mentioned in a verse common to *Hṛdaya* and *Saṇ-graha* (A.h.U.5.51cd = A.s.U.8.58).

Returning to the Samgraha, this treatise presents, next to the elements already discussed, more material that has been noticed as Buddhist in character, by some scholars at least. Others deny this Buddhist character and interpret the same data as Hinduist or consider it to be ambiguous.

A much discussed subject is the ekavaidya (unique physician) of the opening verse of the Sangraha. The author bows down to this deity, who utterly eradicated from the

world all the innate (sahaja) diseases, consisting of lust (rāga), etc.

This ekavaidya of the Samgraha is without any doubt the same as the apūrvavaidya (unprecedented physician) of the corresponding, but differently worded, opening verse of the Hrdaya. The salutation at the beginning of both works is remarkable by being addressed to a deity of a vague appellation, open to disagreeing interpretations. ¹⁵¹ Whether or not this is intentional cannot be decided. The subsequent history of Hrdaya and Samgraha shows that the ambiguity of their mangalas has furthered their acceptance in both Buddhist and Hindu circles.

Indu refers to the ekavaidya of the Samgraha as the author's chosen deity (abhimatadevatā) and refuses to identify him.

Much more material is available on the apūrvavaidya of the *Hṛdaya*, which facilitates the examination of the fate of this figure in the commentarial literature.

Arunadatta, Candranandana, Hemādri and Indu, though commenting on the meaning of apūrva, are silent on the identity of the author's chosen deity, ¹⁵² which, as an uncommon feature, deserves to be taken stock of as a sign that may indicate embarrassment.

One author put considerable effort into persuading his readers that the apūrvavaidya is not the Buddha or some figure from the Buddhist pantheon, but, on the contrary, a Hindu deity. His polemics with an opponent prove that a Buddhist interpretation was current in certain circles. This author, Narahari, ¹⁵³ defends Vāgbhaṭa against the accusation of heterodoxy and of expressing himself in a confusing style. Narahari's Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana begins with a lengthy exposition on the opening verse of the Hṛdaya and contains numerous arguments to establish that the apūrvavaidya is Īśvara. Narahari also maintains that the Bhaiṣa jyaguru, found in a mantra occurring in both Samgraha and Hṛdaya, cannot but designate Dhanvantari.

Śrīdāsapandita asserts rather firmly in his *Hrdayabodhikā* on the *Hrdaya* that the apūrvavaidya – and the ekavaidya of the *Samgraha* – should be interpreted as Īśvara. The *Skāndapurāṇa* and *Śaivapurāṇa* are quoted in support. He rejects the opinion that Vāgbhaṭa's unusual way of expressing himself (aprasiddhapadaprayoga) gives rise to uncertainty about the deity he had in mind. At the end of this plea, however, he mentions briefly, contradicting his former statements, that the apūrvavaidya may also be Sugata (= Buddha); a quotation from Halāyudha ¹⁵⁴ serves to confirm this. Śrīdāsa acknowledges that the mantra addressed to Bhaisa iyaguru is of Buddhist inspiration.

The author of the commentary on the Hrdaya called Hrdya is one of the few to own unequivocally that $V\bar{a}gbhata$ was a Buddhist. ¹⁵⁵

Before proceeding to a survey of more recent opinions on the first verses of Samgraha and Hrdaya, it will be necessary to discuss a rather long salutation, preceding the one addressed to the ekavaidya. This mangala, present in some of the editions of the Samgraha, ¹⁵⁶ praises, with a series of epithets, a deity called Buddha. ¹⁵⁷ Some European and Indian scholars ¹⁵⁸ accepted this additional verse as genuine, which made it play a part in their thoughts on Vāgbhaṭa's religion. The absence of the eulogy in most of the editions of the Samgraha, the silence of Indu, the absence of a similar verse from the Hrdaya and its Tibetan translation, all this together speaks against its trustworthiness.

P. Cordier ¹⁵⁹ was one of the early Western scholars to declare that the opening verse of the *Saṃgraha* is unequivocally Buddhist; ¹⁶⁰ he admitted the parallel stanza of the *Hṛdaya* to be somewhat ambiguous, but did not hesitate in regarding its apūrvavaidya as the Buddha

Other Western scholars considering Vāgbhaṭa to be a Buddhist are: A.B. Keith 161 and G. Liétard 162

Indian scholars convinced that Vāgbhaṭa was a Buddhist, and who accept the opening verses of *Saṃgraha* and *Hṛdaya* as testimonies in proof, are, for example, G. Chāngāṇī, ¹⁶³ G.S. Pendse, ¹⁶⁴ and Nandkiśor Śarmā. ¹⁶⁵

Indian scholars who roundabout pronounce that Vāgbhaṭa was a Buddhist are Atrideva Gupta, ¹⁶⁶ A.M. Kunte, ¹⁶⁷ N.S. Mooss, ¹⁶⁸ H. Parāḍkar, Paraśurāmlakṣman Vaidya, ¹⁶⁹ P. Rāy, ¹⁷⁰ and Rudrapāraśava, ¹⁷¹

S. Dasgupta thought it to be very probable that Vagbhata was a Buddhist. 172

The opening verses of Sangraha and Hrdaya are interpreted as referring to a Hindu deity by a number of Indian scholars. Some examples may suffice.

Gaņeśaśāstrin Tarţe ¹⁷³ asserts that the author was an orthodox Hindu. He explains away the Buddha in the additional maṅgala, present in his edition, and relies on the Hinduist references in the work. Kṛṣṇarāvaśarman ¹⁷⁴ maintains that the Buddha and the ekavaidya of the two maṅgalas of the Saṇgraha designate the paramapuruṣa, Brahmā. G. Chāṇgāṇī ¹⁷⁵ claimed that the ekavaidya of the Saṇgraha is Dhanvantari. G. Hā-ldār ¹⁷⁶ expressed as his view that the ekavaidya and apūrvavaidya designate Rudra, also called Śamkara. ¹⁷⁷

Fortunately, more balanced views are far from rare.

P.V. Sharma ¹⁷⁸ thinks that Vāgbhaṭa, the author of the *Saṃgraha*, grew up in a Hindu family, but was converted to Buddhism under the influence of his teacher Avalokita. In keeping with the tolerant spirit of the age in which he lived, he was not averse at all to incorporating Hindu elements in his writing. ¹⁷⁹

Rāmcandravināyak Paṭvardhan ¹⁸⁰ regarded Vāgbhaṭa as basically a Hindu, who, in order to satisfy a wide range of readers, did not altogether neglect Buddhist deities; for the same purpose, he composed mangalas suitable to double entendre (dvyartha).

R. Śāstrī, though strongly defending Vāgbhaṭa's orthodoxy, admitted that the apūrvavaidya may refer as well to Avalokiteśvara as to Dhanvantari. 181

G.K. Gurjar and R.M. Anand ¹⁸² expressed as their opinion that Vāgbhata, though a Buddhist by inclination, did not allow this to overshadow his respect for the traditions of Indian medicine. He harboured no ill feelings towards Brahmanism, respected it, and was generally tolerant in religious matters. The invocation of the apūrvavaidya is interpreted as a testimony of this attitude and thought to refer to both the Buddha as Bhaisa jyaguru and to Rudra as a healing deity. ¹⁸³

Kunte ¹⁸⁴ argued that Vāgbhaṭa was a Hindu who came under the influence of Buddha's teachings, since he lived in a period of Buddhist expansion. Kunte regarded the mangalas as partly Buddhist, but mainly, in particular the long additional one, as Hinduist; he stressed that three fourths of the long salutation are addressed to Ganeśa. ¹⁸⁵

S.K. Ramachandra Rao 186 sees it as likely that Vagbhata was a Buddhist, though not of a rigid type, because he was also favourably inclined towards the Vedic culture.

K.R. Srikantha Murthy ¹⁸⁷ advanced that Vāgbhaṭa was born as a brāhmaṇa, was educated and lived according to the Hindu dharma in his early life, and embraced Buddhism later. He mentions Varāhamihira as another example of the same type of development. The same scholar maintained this position in a later publication, ¹⁸⁸ where he brings forward that Vāgbhata shows equal reverence for Hinduism and Buddhism.

Apart from the mangalas and the names from the Buddhist pantheon, a series of other elements pointing to Buddhist influence in Samgraha and Hṛdaya have been discussed in the literature on Vāgbhaṭa's religious attitude. Again, it will be useful to examine the material from the Samgraha first and compare it with that found in the Hṛdaya.

The Samgraha begins with paying homage to the ekavaidya who has driven away from the world all the innate (sahaja) diseases, ¹⁸⁹ together with their roots. These diseases are said to consist of rāga (lust), etc. The Hrdaya has a similar verse on the apūrvavaidya, who destroyed all the diseases, which perpetually cling to the body, and give rise to (the triad consisting of) autsukya (desire), moha (ignorance), and arati (ill-will). ¹⁹⁰

The series beginning with raga is interpreted as Buddhist by some, by others as Hinduist in character.

C. Vogel¹⁹¹ is convinced that the three moral poisons of Buddhism are meant, which almost certainly shows Buddha to be the apūrvavaidya. The three poisons are rāga, dvesa and moha.¹⁹²

G. Hāldār ¹⁹³ is convinced that the five kleśas are meant, which consist of avidyā, asmitā, rāga, dvesa, and abhiniveśa. ¹⁹⁴

An element thought to be inspired by Buddhism concerns the way to manage diseases which are incurable, but, nevertheless, amenable to palliative treatment (yāpya). Both Saṃgraha(Sū.2.30) and Hṛdaya (Sū.1.32) deal with this subject. These conditions should be treated as long as a remnant of āyus (the allotted span of life) remains. The conviction of K. Butzenberger and M. Fedorova 195 that this represents an effort to mitigate the āyurvedic principle of rejection of incurable cases may be out of proportion. Yāpya diseases were not rejected in āyurveda and even those classified as pratyākhyeya (suitable to be refused) were accepted after giving a warning that the hope of complete recovery should be given up. 196 Nevertheless, a remarkable verse of the Saṃgraha lays stress on the physician's duty to attend to an incurable patient until he breathes his last (caramocchvāsa). 197

The chapter on dinacaryā contains two stanzas (A.s.Sū.3.115–116) which begin with the exhortation to keep to the ten paths of right conduct (karınapatha) and to conquer the inner enemies (abhyantarāri). The verses go on with the advice to give up the ten bad practices (pāpakarman) relating to the activities of body, voice and mind (kāyavāmmanas). ¹⁹⁸ These practices consist of: hiṇṣsā (injuring living beings), steya (theft), anyathākāma (desiring a woman with whom intercourse is prohibited), paisunya (slander), paruṣa (harsh speech), anṛta (lying), saṃbhinnalāpa (idle talk), vyāpāda (malice), abhidhyā (envy), and dṛgviparyaya (heterodoxy). ¹⁹⁹ The Hṛdaya contains exactly the same series of ten bad practices (A.h.Sū.2.21cd–22 = A.s.Sū.3.115cd–116), but has not the ardhaśloka about the ten karmapathas and the inner enemies. The half-

verse substituted in the *Hrdaya* (Sū.2.21ab) prescribes that one should affectionately associate with one's friends (kalyāṇamitra) and keep distant from others.

The commentaries of Aruṇa, Hemādri, Indu, Parameśvara and Śrīdasapaṇḍita explain the verses as referring to the Hindu dharma and ignore that they are more probably of Buddhist inspiration. ²⁰⁰ The ten kuśala and ten akuśala karmapathas are well known from various Buddhist texts. ²⁰¹ However, dharmaśāstra texts are also acquainted with a related series of ten dharmapathas. ²⁰²

In conformity with the syncretistic trends of the Sangraha, the verses discussed are surrounded by others with no trace of Buddhist influence.

A rule found in the *Samgraha*, but absent from the *Hrdaya*, says that one should not take a bath in a tank, etc., belonging to someone else, without having removed five pindas (of soil from the bottom)²⁰³ (A.s.Sū.3.70cd). This prescription is seen as a Buddhist element by some scholars,²⁰⁴ whereas others claim that it is not unknown to Hindus.²⁰⁵ The presentation of five or four pindas before going to bathe in a tank belonging to someone else is prescribed in the *Yājñavalkyasnrti*, while the *Manusmrti* simply prohibits bathing in such a place (parakīyanipāna).²⁰⁶ The *Viṣṇusmrti* forbids bathing in another man's pool, but, in cases of distress, it is permitted after having offered up five (or seven, or four) lumps of clay and (three jars with) water.²⁰⁷

The evidence is clearly against the Buddhist connotation of the practice referred to in the Samgraha.

The prohibition to take food during the night is regarded as a Buddhist element by some. ²⁰⁸

An undisputed Buddhist element, found in the *Saṃgrah*a only, is the reference to the four kinds of death distinguished by the Buddhists (saugatāḥ; A.s.Sū.9.89ab). ²⁰⁹ This classification is not elucidated, nor are details given regarding the one hundred and one kinds of death distinguished by the vedavādinah (A.s.Sū.9.86).

Benevolence (maitrī) towards all living beings (sarvasattva), found in a verse common to Samgraha and Hrdaya (A.s.Ci.21.135 = A.h.Ci.19.98), is a Buddhist element according to a number of scholars. ²¹⁰ The term occurs, characteristically, in a mixture of religious concepts, also mentioning vrata, dama, ²¹¹ yama, tyāga, ²¹² and śīla, as well as the veneration of brāhmaṇas, deities (sura) and gurus. The verse ends with the precept to worship (ārādhana) Jina, Jinasuta, Tārā and Bhāskara.

Maitrī, however, is not restricted to Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya at all. The term occurs in the Carakasaṃhitā too, where, for example, Ātreya Punarvasu is said to be maitrīpara. ²¹³ Its frequency²¹⁴ and repeated occurrence, next to karuṇā, ²¹⁵ in Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya would be more interesting.

The precept of calling to mind (anu-saṃ-smṛ-) the deity called Śāstar before going to sleep, found in the *Saṃgraha* (Sū.3.119ab), is a Buddhist element according to some, ²¹⁶ but Śāstar may well be the Hindu deity called thus and not the Buddha or another figure from the Buddhist pantheon. ²¹⁷

The statement (A.s.Śā.1.38) that the things heard (śruti) by a pregnant woman (antarvatnī) influence the character type (sattva) of her child is regarded as Buddhist in character by some. ²¹⁸ There is, however, no ground for such a conclusion, the Suśrutasamhitā (Śā.10.3) clearly describes the bad effects of disagreeable sounds,

etc., heard by a pregnant woman, on the child in her womb.

An undoubtful Buddhist element is the praise of a physician who imitates the way of life of a Bodhisattva, ²¹⁹ who is full of karuṇā, and free from desires (nirāmiṣa) (A.s. U.50.198), ²²⁰

The use of the term dhāriņī may well be a Buddhist characteristic. 221

The employment of the term bhikṣu (A.s.Ci.21.33; U.6.53), regarded as a Buddhist element by some, ²²² is not convincing, because it is found in texts without Buddhist influence as well. ²²³

The argument that the emphasis on mental disorders is a feature due to Buddhism, which, in its early period, inculcated pessimism, ²²⁴ does, in my view, not carry conviction. ²²⁵

Apart from the features that the *Hrdaya* has in common with the *Samgraha*, it presents some additional elements considered to be Buddhist in inspiration.

Some verses in praise of compassion with the needy, helpfulness even to one's enemies, and equanimity through rough and smooth (Sū.2.24cd-25) are seen as based on Buddhist ethics. ²²⁶ Noticeable again is the context; the ardhaśloka that precedes prescribes that the gods, cows, brāhmaṇas, etc., should receive due honour. This injunction is preceded in its turn by a half-verse recommending to regard even kīṭas and ants as one's equals and one emphasizing the merit of assistance to the destitute and distressed.

The instruction not to put strain on the senses, nor to cherish the senses too much (Sū.2.29cd), is sometimes²²⁷ seen as an exhortation to keep to the Middle Way of Buddhism. It is, however, followed by a half-verse urging one not to engage in activities contrary to the trivarga.

A prescription that may indeed be Buddhist, found in the chapter on daily conduct (Sū.2.30cd), enjoins steering a middle course (madhyamā pratipad) in all matters (sarvadharmeṣu). The Middle Way of Buddhism may be meant here. ²²⁸ The passage has been accepted as Buddhist by some Indian scholars. ²²⁹ P.V. Sharma, ²³⁰ who is not convinced, tried to invalidate this point of view by some references to parallels in the works of Kālidāsa. ²³¹ Atrideva interprets the middle course as one of the signs giving evidence of Vāgbhaṭa's syncretistic attitude. ²³² R. Śāstrī, a staunch advocate of Vāgbhaṭa's orthodoxy, sees the middle course mentioned as an illustration of Vāgbhaṭa's tendency to use concepts with a multiple meaning, a tendency agreeing with the reignious climate during the reign of Vainyagupta; this inclination also led him, for example, to employ the term apūrvavaidya. ²³³ As in many other instances, here again the passage is preceded by the Hinduist precept not to undertake any activity conflicting with the dharma.

The application of awareness (Sū.2.46–47) is one of the Buddhist features of the *Hrdaya* according to C. Vogel. ²³⁴

Some regard the rule that books (ācāryagrantha) should not be recited or read, for fear of violating a vrata, on the eleventh day of a lunar month as inspired by Buddhism. ²³⁵

The Hinduist features of the Samgraha have received less attention than those pointing to Buddhist influence and were studied in particular by those advocating that Vagbhata adhered to the Hindu dharma. The arguments adduced with a view to

establish Vāgbhaṭa's orthodoxy should be examined with caution, since the features referred to need not be based at all on Vāgbhaṭa's religious attitude, but may simply reflect the sources from which he borrowed. ²³⁶ Much more illuminating would be what he omitted from his sources or what he changed.

Some statements found in the Satngraha are taken to mean that Vāgbhaṭa had an aversion to Buddhist sanctuaries.

The first passage usually referred to in this context (A.s.Sū.3.43 = A.h.Sū.2.33cd–34ab) says that one should not set foot on a number of particular places. The first of these places is the shadow of a caitya, interpreted in this case as a Buddhist sanctuary. The argument hinges on the meaning of caitya. The commentators are not very helpful. Arunadatta remarks that a caitya is either a holy tree or a Buddhist place of worship; Candranandana calls it atree in which a deity resides; Hemādri comments that a tree in which a graha has his residence is meant; Indu refrains from an explanation in saying that a caitya is well known; ²³⁷ Parameśvara follows Aruna in declaring it to be a holy tree, called mannumaram in the regional language, or a Buddhist sanctuary; Śrīdāsapanetita agrees with Candranandana, although adding that it is a Buddhist place of worship according to Hātaka and a tree in a garden according to the Hṛdyākāra.

A second passage (A.s.Sū.3.44cd) prohibits passing the night at a vṛkṣacaitya or catvara (a cross-road). ²³⁸ The vṛkṣacaitya is a holy tree here or a (holy) tree and a caitya are meant. ²³⁹

Both statements, however, are actually recasts in verse of very similar passages in prose found in the *Carakasanhitā* (Sū.8.19), which proves that Vāgbhaṭa's so-called aversion to caityas has been borrowed from Caraka and has nothing to do with a dislike of Buddhism. Cakrapāṇi's explanation of caitya supports this view, for he says that it is a conspicuously big tree in a village. ²⁴⁰

The references to the Hindu trivarga (the three aims of life) have been regarded as proving that Vāgbhaṭa embraced the Hindu dharma. The absence of an index on the Sangraha makes it impossible to survey all the relevant passages. ²⁴¹ Part of the passages where the term trivarga occurs or the three aims are referred to may be borrowed from Caraka or Suśruta, thus being of no use in discussing Vāgbhata's religion.

Much more interesting are changes that can be discovered when Vāgbhaṭa's text is compared with the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, and additions which cannot be traced to these sources.

An example that may throw light on Vāgbhaṭa's technique of handling his sources is found towards the end of the last chapter of the Uttarasthāna of the Samgraha (U.50. 185–195), where a series of verses on medical ethics are quoted from Caraka, but some, which are unquestionably Hinduist, are omitted. One of the verses left out says that the āyurveda has been proclaimed by the great sages, devoted to the dharma, for the sake of the dharma, and not to obtain gain (artha) or enjoyments (kāma);²⁴² the āyurveda has been expounded out of the wish to (provide mankind with) an imperishable (akṣara) state (sthāna) (Ca.Ci.1⁴.57). Another verse missing describes the physician as one who delivers the patient from the snares (pāṣa) of the god of death (Vaivasvata) (Ca.Ci.1⁴.60). Meaningful too are the additions, which, due to their stress on maitrī, karunā, a nirāmiṣa manas, etc. (A.s.U.50.196–198), may be of Buddhist inspiration.

A series of verses immediately preceding those on medical ethics are about the feats of the Aśvins, to whom physicians are compared (A.s.U.50.177–184). Hilgenberg and Kirfel ²⁴³ and C. Vogel ²⁴⁴ pointed them out as a typically Hinduist feature, but they are very close to the verses on the same subject from the *Carakasanhitā*, which also precede those on ethics (Ca.Ci.1⁴.40cd–50).

Hilgenberg and Kirfel ²⁴⁵ and C. Vogel ²⁴⁶ also mentioned the elaborate mythical story about the origin of fever in the Aṣtāngasamgraha (Ci.1.4) as a characteristically Hinduist feature. The numerous details given by Vāgbhaṭa, absent from Carakasamhitā and Suśrutasamhitā, and obviously from some unidentified source, are remarkable indeed. The Hrdaya omits all the details and is very concise on the subject (Ci.2.1-2).

The same authors ²⁴⁷ drew attention to the religious treatment of rājayakṣman, of a clearly Hinduist type, described at the end of the chapters on the therapy of that disease in Sangraha and Hṛdaya. The Hṛdaya has a half-verse only (Ci.5.84), which recommends recourse to religious measures (daivavyapāśraya) and to the practices mentioned in the Atharvaveda. The Sangraha has the same ardhaśloka (Ci.7.118cd), but adds a verse, saying that the same sacrifice (iṣṭi) as that mentioned in the Veda, which cured Candra's rājayakṣman, should be performed by the purohita (Ci.7.119). This extra verse, however, is a variant of a stanza found in the Carakasaṃhitā (Ci.8.189), which prescribes the same iṣṭi, without mentioning a purohita.

Many other features, thought to prove Vāgbhaṭa's adherence to the Hindu dharma, have been noticed by Indian scholars.

Kṛṣṇarāvaśarman²⁴⁸ regarded the statement that the *Saṃgraha* does not contain a single syllable not in agreement with the tradition (āgama) (Sū.1.20) as such a feature; he interpreted āgama as vaidikamārga, although the term is often employed merely to designate the medical tradition. The same scholar was of the opinion that the chapter on the instruction of students of the *Saṃgraha* (Sū.2) testifies to the orthodoxy of Vāgbhaṭa,²⁴⁹ because the requirements making a pupil acceptable are in conformity with the rules formulated in dharmaśāstra texts. These requirements are, however, of a very general type, declaring, for example, that the student ought to be a brahmacārin, devoted to his guru, etc. (Sū.2.2-4ab); circumstances unsuitable to study are menioned too (Sū.2.4cd-5). Kṛṣṇarāvaśarman is oblivious of the facts that the *Saṃgraha* omits numerous details found in the *Carakasaṃhitā*, does not describe the typically Hinduist rituals which are peculiar to Caraka, and is unaware of the so-called 'oath' of the *Carakasaṃhitā*. He also fails to notice that the pertinent chapter of the *Saṃgraha* with a verse praising compassion (dayā) with all living beings as the highest dharma (Sū.2.37cd-38).

The Astāngahṛdaya contains some passages not found in the Samgraha which are thought to support Vāgbhaṭa's orthodoxy.

The chapter on daily conduct contains the precept not to undertake any action that is in conflict with the three aims of life (trivarga) (Sū.2.30ab). This half-verse is, however, surrounded by instructions more in line with Buddhism. The three aims are separately mentioned alsewhere (Sū.1.2).

Other arguments brought forward in support of the thesis that Vāgbhaṭa was not a Buddhist, but a Hindu, are, for example: the worship of Hindu deities; ²⁵⁰ the frequent

prescription to venerate brāhmaṇas, gurus, cows, etc.;²⁵¹ the emphasis on brahmacarya as the best rasāyana for this world and the next (lokadvaya);²⁵² the importance of the śāśvataloka and paraloka;²⁵³ the auspiciousness of hearing the sounds of Veda recitation;²⁵⁴ the observance of Hindu rituals;²⁵⁵ the absence of a ban on the consumption of meat and alcoholic beverages;²⁵⁶ the presence of propitiation of the planets;²⁵⁷ the fact that Hemādri calls him an ācārya;²⁵⁸ the use of the term āyurveda instead of cikitsā, the usual term in Buddhist texts.

R. Śastrī argues that the laudatory stanza addressed to Vāgbhaṭa (the dhyānaśloka), which describes him as ya jñopavīta (invested with the sacred thread), ²⁵⁹ proves that he was a Hindu.

The same scholar collected evidence in support of the more specific thesis that Vā-gbhaṭa belonged to the community of the Bhāgavatas. ²⁶⁰ He points to the important position of Narasinha, exemplified by the medicated ghee called nārasinhaghṭta, which is said to make one's body resemble that of Narasinha; someone taking this drug regularly will remain free from disease, because all ailments flee from him, like Asuras in fear of Narasinha with his flaming discus (A.h.U.39.172–173). ²⁶¹ The veneration for Viṣṇu, attested in a number of passages, is adduced in support, ²⁶² as is the enumeration of auspicious objects the physician may observe on his way to the patient. ²⁶³ The Bhāgavata features detected in the *Hṛdaya* by R. Śāstrī are of importance to him because he wants to place Vāgbhaṭa in the later Gupta age, a period in which Bhāgavatism flourished. ²⁶⁴

That Vāgbhaṭa remained faithful to the Hindu dharma is, according to R. Śāstrī again, also clear from the fact that he chose to remain in Kaśmīr in the period which saw the fame of the Buddhist university of Nālandā reach its zenith. ²⁶⁵

The thesis that Vāgbhaṭa was neither a Buddhist, nor a Hindu, but a Jaina, has been defended by one scholar only, Śrīnivāsācāriyar. ²⁶⁶ His arguments were: Vāgbhaṭa is referred to as a bhiṣaggaṇi at the end of the Aṣṭāṅganighaṇṭu; Pūjyapādavāgbhaṭasvāmin is honoured by the Jains of Southern India before taking an agada; the Jainas of Malabar do not study the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya on the eleventh tithi of a lunar month, ²⁶⁷ out of fear to break a vrata. ²⁶⁸ The same scholar held that Vāgbhaṭa was identical with Amarasimha, the author of the Amarakośa, who, though born in a brāhmaṇa family, embraced Jainism after studying with a Jaina teacher. It will be clear that none of these arguments carries any weight.

The diversity of the views set forth and defended by all sorts of arguments, supported by material from the same two treatises, shows that an unequivocal conclusion regarding a particular religious persuasion of the author or authors cannot be reached. The most salient characteristic, which catches the eye again and again when reading both works, remains a clear-cut syncretistic attitude, repeatedly expressed by means of an ambiguous phraseology or a juxtaposition of elements derived from conflicting religious beliefs.

The differences between Samgraha and Hrdaya, in this regard and in other respects, have been neglected in many studies so far. These differences will be discussed later again.

Date of the Astāngasamgraha

One of the most controversial issues concerning the date of the Samgraha, as well as that of the Hrdaya, stems from some remarks of I-ching, a Chinese Buddhist monk, in the report of his travels in India and the Malay archipelago. ²⁶⁹ After an exposition on the eight branches of Indian medicine, the author says: "These eight arts formerly existed in eight books, but lately a man epitomized them and made them into one bundle. All physicians in the five parts of India practise according to this book, and any physician who is well versed in it never fails to live by the official pay". ²⁷⁰

These sentences enticed a host of scholars to speculate on the identity of the medical treatise I-ching had in mind.

Before discussing this point, it may be useful to deal first with I-ching's reliability in general and his knowledge of medicine in particular.

Max Mtiller wrote in a letter to Takakusu²⁷¹ that we must not expect from I-ching any trustworthy information on the ancient literature of India; ²⁷² he added that, though the works of Chinese pilgrims throw little light on the ancient literature, or even on what is called the Renaissance period up to 400 A.D., they have proved of great help to us in fixing the dates of Sanskrit writers whom they either knew personally or who had died not long before their times. ²⁷³

This estimate of I-ching's dependability is rather encouraging.

Medicine is a subject on which I-ching himself remarks that he studied it successfully, but, as it was not his proper vocation, he finally gave it up. ²⁷⁴

The extent and accuracy of I-ching's knowledge of Indian medicine can be gauged and checked by the material on the subject in his travel report, and, as has often been overlooked, by a close study of his Chinese translation of the Suvarnaprabhāsasūtra.²⁷⁵

The travel report contains three chapters devoted to medicine. These are: chapters XXVII: on symptoms of bodily illness, XXVIII: rules on giving medicine, and XXIX: hurtful medical treatment must not be practised.

A digression on these chapters is necessary in order to be able to form an opinion on I-ching's sources and his way of handling Indian medical concepts. ²⁷⁶

The very first statements of chapter XXVII make one suspicious. The author says that the small meal in the morning should be taken in accordance with the condition of the four great elements of which one's body consists. This group of four great elements (mahābhūtas) recurs again and again in the medical chapters of the report and in the Suvarṇaprabhāsasūtra translation. Chapter XXVIII even begins with the assertion that every living creature is subject either to the peaceful working or failure of the four great elements.

The source of this view is, according to I-ching himself, a Sūtra on the art of medicine, preached by the Buddha, which mentions earth, water, fire and air as the four elements; the morbific factors associated with these elements are designated by Chinese characters corresponding to Sanskrit guru, ²⁷⁷ śleşman, pitta and vāta. ²⁷⁸

This emphasis on a doctrine making four great elements and their imbalance into basic concepts of medical theory disagrees completely with a authorized by a theory acknowledging the three dosas and their imbalance as basic, while

five, not four, great elements are also given considerable scope. This is the more remarkable when it is taken into account that the tridoṣavāda was not unknown to I-ching. 280

The translation of the Suvarṇaprabhāsasūtra by I-ching confirms that he reinterpreted the central concepts of āyurveda under the influence of Buddhist thought and theories characteristic of Chinese medicine.

The two sources at our disposal as testimonies of I-ching's acquaintance with ayurveda thus show unambiguously that he was conversant with part of its theoretical structure and a large number of details concerning treatment, but failed to grasp the essential differences between Indian and Chinese medical thought. The travel report amply attests to his tendency of finding parallels and of his attempts at equating disagreeing concepts of both systems.

The question to be tackled now is whether or not the evidence available suggests that I-ching was informed about Vāgbhata and a work attributed to him.

Several arguments tell against the assumption that he was. Characteristic of Aṣṭā-ngasaṃgraha and Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya is a strong emphasis on the doctrine of the three doṣas and the seven elements of the body, while the five mahābhūtas retreat into the background in comparison with their role in Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā. In contrast with this, I-ching lays stress on the crucial position of four mahābhūtas.

I-ching's travel report enumerates and characterizes the eight branches of āyurve-da. ²⁸¹ The same subject is dealt with in the *Suvarṇaprabhāsa* translation. These two versions are largely in conformity with each other; some differences in detail are interesting without warranting the conclusion that they cannot stem from the same author, as J. Nobel suggested. ²⁸²

Remarkable about the order of presentation of the eight divisions is their conformity with the arrangement found in the Suśrutasaṃhitā (Sū.1.8), with only this dissimilarity that agadatantra precedes kaumārabhṛtya instead of being the next item. The order found in Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha (Sū.1.8cd) and Aṣṭāngahrdaya (Sū.1.5cd) diverges considerably. Very strikingly, I-ching's list begins in the travel report with an unusual equivalent of śalya (surgery); he defines this branch as the one dealing with sores, adding farther on that these are of two kinds, inward and outward. ²⁸³ The Suvarnaprabhāsa translation deals with śalya differently and uses a Chinese character meaning thorn, which better approximates Sanskrit śalya (all sorts of foreign bodies). ²⁸⁴ The eighth item of the series, vājīkaraṇa, the branch dealing with aphrodisiacs, is incorrectly described in the travel report and said to consist of methods of invigorating the legs and the body.

The evidence about I-ching's knowledge concerning the eight arigas of āyurveda²⁸⁵ is obviously not in favour of his having been acquainted with Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha or Astāṅgahrdaya.²⁸⁶

Some details in his information about Indian medicine reinforce this impression.

He relates, for example, that people in India do not eat any kind of onions²⁸⁷ and that these are not permitted as food (to Buddhists), except in case of illness. ²⁸⁸ Onions (palāṇḍu) and garlic (laśuna) are, however, the subjects of elaborate kalpas in the Sangraha, while the Hṛdaya, which has no palāṇḍukalpa, does contain a laśunakalpa. Both

Samgraha and Hṛdaya declare, however, that brāhmaṇas abstain from garlic (A.s.U.49. 162 = A.h.U.39.112), which is not śasta (A.s.U.49.164). I-ching's data on harītakī are also peculiar in mentioning the use of the bark instead of the fruit. ²⁸⁹

All this negative evidence is not counterbalanced by a passage, found in the travel report, ²⁹⁰ declaring that, if a disease be not cured by abstaining from food for seven days, one should then seek help from Avalokitesvara. Paying homage to Āryāvalokita and other figures from the Buddhist pantheon is recommended to patients suffering from fever in the Samgraha (Ci.2.144), but this does not make it certain, as sometimes assumed, ²⁹¹ that I-ching knew the work, because the veneration of Avalokitesvara is such a widespread phenomenon in Mahāyāna Buddhism.

In short, the communication in the travel report about a generally known medical treatise amounts to no more than a rumour about a book never studied by I-ching if he meant an āyurvedic treatise. More probably, he got his knowledge of Indian medicine from one or more Buddhist texts dealing with the subject. ²⁹²

The vagueness of I-ching's communication was a moving force, actuating many scholars to invent ingenuous reasonings in their efforts to solve the problem and to refute competing theories of colleagues. Rather often, it was overlooked that I-ching was not well informed about Indian medical literature; otherwise, he would never have asserted that only lately ²⁹³ an epitome of the eight branches of medicine had been composed, and that, formerly, these were dealt with in separate textbooks. Dṛḍhabala's revision of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and, probably, the new version of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* with the Uttaratantra appended to it, were already available as complete textbooks when I-ching was in India. Suspicion is aroused too by his explicit statement that one single treatise was the basis for medical practice in the five parts of India.

As already mentioned, all these considerations did not withhold speculations about the identity of the treatise mentioned.

J. Takakusu²⁹⁴ suggested that the *Suśrutasaṃhitām*ight be meant and pointed to the very similar series of the eight branches in that treatise, when compared with I-ching's enumeration. J. Jolly, ²⁹⁵ not wanting to exclude this option, collected some additional data in support²⁹⁶ of the hypothesis that a treatise closely related to the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* might be the book in question; however, not feeling sure of this, he brought forward, as an alternative solution, that it could be some version of the *Aṣṭāṇgasaṃgraha*, still nearer to Suśruta than the one known to us.

The idea that I-ching's information on Indian medicine could, at least partly, ultimately derive from the Suśrutasaṃhitā, was brushed aside, too easily in my opinion, in later writings on the subject.

A.F.R. Hoernle²⁹⁷ strongly objected to the views of J. Jolly. He advanced that the Suśrutasamhitā could not possibly be implicated, since its great antiquity conflicts with I-ching's reference to a recent book and also because its title cannot be connected with I-ching's epitome. The similarities between the lists of the angas of āyurveda were reasoned away with unacceptable arguments. Moreover, Hoernle was wrong in giving much weight to the age of the Suśrutasamhitā, because the later version is concerned here; this later version, not the original, more ancient samhitā, may well be described as comprising all eight branches of medicine.

Unfortunately, Hoernle's criticisms were thought to be convincing by a number of later scholars. $^{298}\,$

Hoernle tried to defend as a much better solution that I-ching had the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha in mind. His arguments were that its title agrees with an epitome of the eight branches, that it was a recent work in the latter part of the seventh century, the period of I-ching's stay in India, and that it was current during that period. He ruled out the Hṛdaya as a treatise with a much less suggestive title, and, also, because of his opinion that the Hṛdaya cannot be placed earlier than the eighth century. The considerable disagreements between the names of the eight aṅgas, their contents and their order, as found in I-ching's work on the one hand and both Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya on the other, are in this way completely played down and the Saṃgraha is allotted a much more prominent place than it ever had. The thesis that I-ching alludes to the Saṃgraha was repeated in Hoernle's work on Indian osteology. 299

J. Jolly³⁰⁰ wrote a short article in reply to Hoernle's earliest claim³⁰¹ that I-ching refers to the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha. He brought forward that he was not prepared to question the possibility or even plausibility of the proposed identification and emphasized that he had suggested much the same thing himself. In his view, however, it was still undecided whether the author of the Saṃgraha or Suśruta had the better claim, while the author of the Hrdaya and the numerous writers of compendia only known from quotations should neither be lost sight of. Jolly went on with some remarks on the list of the eight angas of āyurveda in I-ching's work. He argued, quite sensibly, that the list is more in conformity with the Suśrutasaṃhitā than with Saṃgraha or Hrdaya. A strong point mentioned in support is the noteworthy detail that I-ching uses the Sanskrit term agada, as Suśruta does, instead of giving a Chinese equivalent or paraphrase of agadatantra; this means that his source, whatever it may have been, had this term, and not daṃṣṭrā, employed in Saṃgraha and Hrdaya.

Jolly's concise, but very clear, exposition shows unmistakably that he had a preference for regarding the Suśrutasaṃhitā or a work related to it as the treatise mentioned by I-ching, although he ended his article cautiously by saying that it does not seem to be sufficiently established that the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha is the anonymous textbook referred to by the Chinese monk.

Hoernle's conviction, expressed as an authoritative conclusion, led to a rather general consensus that Vāgbhaṭa is the author of the book mentioned by I-ching, ³⁰² without critically assessing the arguments, which, in my view, have no cogency at all.

Differences of opinion arose concerning the issue whether the Samgraha or the Hrdaya, both usually regarded as works of Vāgbhaṭa, should be regarded as the winning card. These discussions on the most likely candidate could originate because of the weakness of the arguments determining Hoernle's choice of the Samgraha. First, his late dating of the Hrdaya is wrong; second, the title of that work, which is often seen as an epitome of the Samgraha, is not less apt; third, evidence that the Samgraha ever enjoyed popularity is completely absent. Jolly's perception of the situation testifies to more perspicacity, but got less attention, possibly due to the, undeserved, reputation of Hoernle.

Arguments invalidating Hoernle's reasoning about the Samgraha as the best choice

were adduced by many scholars, but the majority of them did not question the major point and kept to Vāgbhata as the author alluded to.

P.V. Sharma ³⁰³ exposed in detail his reasons for regarding the *Hṛdaya* as the recent treatise mentioned by I-ching. He thinks that I-ching may refer to the *Saṃgraha* once, namely in the passage where he says that the old translators declare that, if a disease be not cured by abstaining from food for seven days, one should then seek help from Avalokiteśvara. ³⁰⁴ This interpretation becomes untenable when one considers the sentences that follow, where I-ching points to the want of knowledge concerning the science of medicine on the part of the old translators. P.V. Sharma adduces as an argument for I-ching's acquaintance with the *Hṛdaya* his assertion that onions (palāṇ�u) are not eaten in India. ³⁰⁵ Another piece of evidence consists, in his view, of the pills prepared from equal quantities of harītakī, dried ginger and sugar, described as being of great benefit. ³⁰⁶ He refers to prescriptions found in the *Hṛdaya*, but these do not mention the equal quantities of all three substances. ³⁰⁷ As a general point, P.V. Sharma brings forward that the *Hṛdaya*, being in verse, soon became popular.

G. Mukhopādhyāya's objections to Hoernle's views, ³⁰⁸ partly sound, partly based on the idea that the *Samgraha* is very old, resulted in the conclusion that I-ching may have had the *Hṛdaya* in mind, but that it is impossible to say whether his remarks may not appropriately refer to other authors whose works are lost.

I-ching's remarks also occasioned some interpretations of a quite different kind than those from the side of Hoernle.

D.Ch. Bhattacharyya, ³⁰⁹ who places one single Vāgbhaṭa, author of Samgraha and Hrdaya, in the ninth century, a long time after I-ching's stay in India, suggested that the latter's reference to an epitome of the eight branches of medicine might aim at any of the compendia which existed at the time and would have achieved notoriety and popularity. The availability of these compendia is not doubtful, since they were the sources of Vṛnda, Candraṭa, and other writers. Examples given by D.Ch. Bhattacharyya are Ravigupta's Siddhasāra, Acyuta's Āyurvedasāra, and the works of Bhadravarman and Bindusāra.

Generally, this hypothesis has not sympathetically been considered, in spite of the fact that Jolly already remarked in passing that the works known from quotations only should not be lost sight of in attempts at identifying the treatise referred to by I-ching. Bhattacharyya's reasonings did not gain much attention on account of the obvious flaws in determining Vāgbhata's date.

C. Vogel³¹⁰ described Bhattacharyya's opinion as purely hypothetical, rather far-fetched, and unsatisfactory. He argued that a book once so popular as to have been read all over India is not very likely afterwards to have fallen into complete oblivion. This is, however, not a strong point, first, because it gives too much credit to I-ching's reliability, and, second, because many once popular medical works did get lost. Vogel's second objection, namely that Vāgbhaṭa does not mention any such work among his sources, is even weaker with a view to the extreme paucity of the latter's references to authors and works he borrowed from.

J. Filliozat³¹¹ repeatedly expressed as his view that the treatise mentioned by I-ching cannot possibly be the Samgraha or the Hrdaya, nor the Uttaratantra of the Su-

śrutasamhitā. 312 He argued that the Uttaratantra, being an appendix to the Suśrutasamhitā that deals with additional matter, does not answer to the description of a complete medical textbook. The Samgraha and Hrdaya do not qualify due to their extent, because I-ching had a short work in mind. Filliozat concluded that one cannot prove that Vāgbhaṭa is the author meant; he considered any work that can be regarded as a summary of the eight branches of medicine to be eligible as one of the candidates.

All these doubts are, according to J. Filliozat, cleared away when the Yogaśataka is taken into consideration. That work is the proper candidate, being a short and complete manual for practitioners, divided into parts corresponding to the eight branches, and very popular too in a period not far removed from the times of I-ching. 313

J. Filliozat was less confident in a later publication, where he conceded that I-ching is mistaken about the recent date of the Yogasataka, if that is the work meant. He mentioned as another difficulty the absence of the name of the author in I-ching's travel report, which requires an explanation in discussions about the Yogasataka as a possible candidate, since this treatise is often attributed, particularly in Buddhist circles, to Nāgārjuna, a name well known to I-ching as a Chinese Buddhist. ³¹⁴ Filliozat admitted that I-ching's information is often questionable. He concluded, finally, that a basis for reaching a definite answer is absent. ³¹⁵

Filliozat's conclusion was endorsed by H.H.M. Schmidt in his notice of the former's views. 316

The harvest yielded by this long digression is obviously not rich, but important nevertheless. I-ching makes us acquainted with a rumour about an unidentifiable book he never set eyes on. Evidence that Vāgbhaṭa was its author is entirely lacking. The medical historian is faced with a situation resembling that vis-a-vis the stories about Kaniṣka and Caraka.

Information on the works attributed to $V\bar{a}gbha$ ta can be gleaned not only from Chinese, but also from Arabic sources.

One of the earliest scholars to discuss the date of composition of the Astāngasamgraba, P. Cordier, called attention to the resemblance of this title to that of an Indian medical work known to early Arabic writers and referred to as Kitāb asānkar al-jāmi '. 317 The translator of the Asānkar was Ibn Duhn, who also rendered another Sanskrit medical treatise into Arabic. 318

A consensus on the interpretation of the full title, *Kitāb asānkar al-jāmi*, has not been reached so far. G. Flügel translated al-jāmi as 'the collector' (der Sammler), A. Müller as 'consisting of something abbreviated' (bestehend in etwas Abgekürztem), C. Vogel as 'summarizing'.

P. Cordier³¹⁹ brought forward that asānkar seems to correspond to Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha, but the supposed antiquity of that work made him hesitant about the correctness of his interpretation. J. Jolly ³²⁰ disagreed with him, arguing that asānkar may just as well designate the Hṛdaya. The fact that al-jāmi' belongs to the title was probably overlooked by J. Jolly, as justly noticed by C. Vogel, ³²¹ who expressed as his opinion that the full Arabic title is in conformity with Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha rather than with Aṣṭāṅgahrdayasamhitā, unless one regards the final r in Asānkar a relic of Hṛdaya. In my

own view, it cannot so easily be excluded that the term al-jāmi' is employed in order to express that the work translated was a summary (hṛdaya). One should also take into consideration that, preceding the Asānkar, the treatises of Caraka and Suśruta are mentioned in the Arabic sources, which might well be a testimony that they were acquainted with the triad now called *Brhattrayī*.

The conclusion must therefore be that it cannot be proved that the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃ-graha was known to the Arabs in the period of Ibn Duhn's activity as a translator, i.e., about A.D. 800.

Quotations from the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha constitute much more solid evidence for its terminus ante quem.

A discussion got going by J. Filliozat has to be dealt with first. This scholar³²² ventured to assert that Vāgbhaṭa reproduces verses found in the Yogaśataka.

The facts in support of J. Filliozat's thesis are slender. The Yogaśataka, which does not refer one single verse to a source, contains three verses found in both Saṃgraha and Hṛḍaya: Yogaśataka 72 = A.s. U.8.21 = A.h.U.5.18; 73 = A.s. U.8.22-23 = A.h.U.5.19; 74 = A.s. U.8.24-27 = A.h.U.5.20. Three more verses occur in the Hṛḍaya only: 22 = A.h.C.14.38; 80 = A.h.U.39.159; 90 = A.h.U.40.49. All these six stanzas have no close parallels in Caraka- or Suśrutasaṃhitā, which means that the Yogaśataka borrowed them or that they derive from the Yogaśataka, unless an unknown common source is invoked.

Evidence on the sources of the *Yogaśataka* would be illuminating, ³²³ but most of the numerous commentaries, which might give some insight, have not yet been edited. The commentary of Pūrņasena, which has been edited, is of no help in this regard.

A curious fact, noticed by H.H.M. Schmidt,³²⁴ may, at first sight, be interpreted as giving support to the hypothesis that the Yogaśataka was indeed one of the sources of the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha and Hṛdaya. One verse of the Yogaśataka (72), forming part of Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya, is said to be from the Yogaśataka in the Yogaratnākara (425). This stanza describes a formula, called māheśvaradhūpa in the Yogaratnākara. The seemingly obvious conclusion that the formula derives ultimately from the Yogaśataka is, nevertheless, without any firm basis, for the Yogaratnākara quotes, for example, the recipe of mahāpaiśācaghṛta (426) as coming from the Yogataraṅgiṇī, while it is already found in the Carakasaṃhitā (Ci.9.45-48).

A similar state of affairs is met with elsewhere. Niścalakara remarks that a particular prescription (Cakradatta, gulma 40) comes from the Yogaśata, where it is found indeed (22), but it forms part of the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya as well. Śivadāṣasena, also a commentator on the Cakradatta, and, moreover, one who bases his work on that of Niścala, attributes the recipe to Vāgbhaṭa, which proves that he regarded the Hṛdaya as the more original source.

Though conclusive evidence on the sources of the Yogaśataka has thus not been obtained, it yet appears to be more probable that its author borrowed from the Hṛdaya than that the latter took part of its material from the Yogaśataka.

The uncertain date of the Yogaśataka, however, makes that work unsuitable as a cue for establishing the date of Samgraha or Hrdaya.

One of the earliest works quoting the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha may be the Mādhavanidāna, which incorporated a number of verses found in the Saṃgraha and absent from the Hṛdaya. Since Mādhava does not refer to his sources by name, we cannot exclude with certainty the possibility that he borrowed from some other, unknown, treatise, also made use of by the author of the Saṃgraha.

The chapter on fevers of the Mādhavanidāna contains four stanzas (2.40–43) which, in a slightly different order and with a number of variants, form part of the Samgraha (Ni.2.96cd–97ab, 95cd–96ab, 100cd–102). The not inconsiderable differences in wording throw some doubt on the Samgraha being their source. This doubt is deepened by the fact that the cluster is preceded by an ardhaśloka (2.39cd) and followed by a verse (2.44) from an unidentified source. In addition, the commentator Vijayarakṣita says in the Madhukośa that the first verse of the short series (2.40) is taken from a treatise that goes against the (traditional) grain (pratilomatanta); it is improbable that he had the Samgraha in mind, which was well known to him and quoted in other contexts as Vrddhavāgbhata.

The chapter on sluggishness of the digestive fire and related disorders contains a group of verses (6.10–13ab) which, though their order differs slightly, are completely identical with stanzas found in the *Samgraha* (Sū.11.31, 33, 32, 36ab). The commentators Vijayaraksita and Vācaspati are silent on their origin, which urges caution, but it cannot be ruled out that they are taken from the *Samgraha*.

A third small group of one verse and a half, found in the chapter on kustha (49.40–41ab), and said to be from the Astāngasamgraha in Jādavjī Tricumjī's edition, is not peculiar to that text, forming part of the Hrdaya as well.

The description of the children's disease called pārigarbhika (68.10–11) is identical with that found in the Samgraha (U.2.97–98), while it is absent from the Hrdaya. Mādhava may have taken the verses from the Samgraha, though the commentators are silent and a common source cannot be excluded.

This evidence shows that the Mādhavanidāna may quote the Samgraha. The fact that Mādhava used the Hrdaya rather extensively in the composition of his work suggests that he was acquainted with the Samgraha as well. The alternative, i.e., the supposition that the Samgraha was not well known or even unknown in Mādhava's time, is improbable.

Treatises which are later than the Mādhavanidāna rather often borrow, usually anonymously, from the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. Examples are the Siddhayoga 325 and the Cakradatta 326

A group of commentators quote from or refer to Samgraha and Hṛdaya, while the members of another group distinguish a Vṛddhavāgbhaṭa and Vāgbhaṭa. Aruṇadatta, 327 Candranandana, 328 Hemādri 329 and Indu 330 belong to the first group; Narahari, Niścala and Śivadāsasena belong to the second group. 331 This material from the commentarial literature does not give new clues to the date of the Samgraha.

The external evidence, taken together, shows that the Sangraha is probably earlier than the Mādhavanidāna and certainly preceded the Siddhayoga.

One testimony remains to be discussed. Śivadāsasena states in his commentary on the Cakradatta 332 that a particular verse of the Hrdaya (U.22.41cd) is inspired by

Jejjața. The presence of a corresponding passage in prose in the Saṃgraha (U.26.31) might be regarded as an indication that Jejjața antedates this work too, if Śivadāsasena is to be trusted.

The anteriority of Jejjata, who lived in the seventh or eighth century, would imply that the Samgraha cannot be earlier than the seventh century and may have to be assigned to its latter half or the beginning of the eighth century.

Quotations from Vāgbhaṭa in non-medical works do not provide data helpful in narrowing down the limits of his period of activity.³³³

The terminus post quem of the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha is elucidated by its sources. The names of the authorities mentioned in it have therefore to be examined first.

The Carakasamhitā is one of the works to which the Samgraha is heavily indebted. The chapters of both begin in a similar way, but the second half of this opening differs. The Carakasamhitā has: thus spoke the venerable Ātreya, whereas the Samgraha says: thus spoke Ātreya and the other great sages (maharşi). The names of these great sages, to whom Indra revealed the āyurveda, are enumerated in the story about the descent of āyurveda to the world of human beings (Sū.1.4–13ab). The list begins with Punarvasu (= Ātreya) and Dhanvantari, who are known as the representatives of kāyacikitsā and śalya, and proceeds with the names of specialists in other branches of āyurveda.

Ātreya is not only mentioned at the beginning of each chapter and in the list of sages referred to. His name appears among a series of deities and sages to be honoured during a treatment with clysters (Sū.28.34). He refutes the opinion held by women that, in the seventh month of pregnancy, due to the coming into being of the hair of the head in the foetus, vidāha arises in a pregnant woman. Ātreya declares that, due to the pressure exerted by the foetus, the doṣas move about and reach the cardiac region; this is the cause of the vidāha that occurs; from this vidāha itching arises, which causes in its turn kikkisa (striae) (Śā.3.3). ³³⁴ Khaṇḍakāpya's view on the diet in the eighth month of pregnancy is rebutted by Ātreya (Śā.3.5). ³³⁵ Interesting is a group of verses in the chapter on rasāyana (U.49.262–263), which contain a mantra, to be recited when guggulu is used; this mantra, said to derive from the muni Ātreya, is addressed to Puṇḍarīkākṣa, ³³⁶ Purandara (= Indra), and other deities. ³³⁷

Atri is mentioned once (U.50.209) and may be the same as Ātreya in this case.

Punarvasu, i.e., Punarvasu Ātreya, is presented as the authority to whom Agniveśa addresses himself for instruction (Ka.5.57). He is referred to as munivṛṣabha in the verses that follow.

Finally, Punarvasu is said to be the only authority to distinguish eight instead of seven vegas of poison (U.40.28).

Caraka is mentioned a number of times. Three āsthāpana enemas are sufficient in order to subdue the doşas in cases of samnipāta according to Caraka; a larger number is not necessary at all, because there does not exist a fourth doşa (Sū.28.54). Interestingly, the *Hrdaya* has only the first two pādas in common (Sū.19.59cd); it proceeds with a verse (Sū.19.60), which, though having the same content as the nextfour pādas of the *Samgraha*, does not refer to Caraka, but, instead, to other physicians, who are, moreover, represented as having a divergent opinion, disagreeing with that of the author. ³³⁸

As far as I know, the *Carakasaṃhitā* never refers to the theory that some authorities acknowledge a fourth doṣa, which raises the problem of the *Saṃgraha*'s source. The second part of the statement may be directed against Suśruta, who says (Sū.35.6) that a basti is beneficial in disorders caused by vāta, pitta, kapha, blood, in cases of saṃsarga, and in saṃnipāta.

The second quotation from Caraka (\hat{Sa} .10.31) deals with the essential character of a riṣṭa as a certain sign of approaching death; those without an accurate knowledge of the matter make mistakes in not recognizing a riṣṭa or seeing one where none is present. The same verse forms part of the Hrdaya (\hat{Sa} .5.2), where it is not ascribed to Caraka. The stanza is absent from the $Carakasamhit\bar{a}$, as already suggested by the use of riṣṭa instead of ariṣṭa, but has a parallel there, though quite differently worded (I.2.6). Again, the source of the verse remains unknown.

The paribhāṣā section at the end of the Kalpasthāna refers to Caraka several times (25, 27, 61, 70).

Next to the references to Ātreya and Caraka, those to Agniveśa have to be dealt with.

Agniveśa is one of those who composed a medical treatise (Sū.1.11). He is mentioned as such again and belongs to a series of deities and sages to be honoured during a treatment with clysters (Sū.28.34).

Agniveśa requests Punarvasu to explain to him which fruits may profitably be used in clysters (Ka.5.57). The stanzas giving Punarvasu's opinion on the subject agree literally with some found in the Siddhisthāna of the *Carakasamhitā*, ³³⁹ where not Agniveśa, but a group of other sages approach the son of Atri (= Ātreya Punarvasu) with an identical question. Some more verses from the same chapters are clearly related to each other as well. ³⁴⁰

Agniveśa's theory on the pathophysiological processes operative in a saṃtata fever is described (Ni.2.62–64a), preceding the rival theory of Hārīta. These verses are noteworthy in not presenting Ātreya as the authority, but his pupil, and contrasting him with Hārīta.

The material collected so far demonstrates that the Saṃgraha is later than Dṛ-ḍhabala's version of the Carakasaṃhitā, in spite of the absence of his name. Additional support is provided by the numerous verses from Dṛḍhabala's contributions which are identical with or closely related to verses occurring in the Saṃgraha. The Kalpasthāna of the Saṃgraha illustrates this, for it contains, when compared with the Hṛḍaya, a large number of additional verses, literally borrowed from the Kalpasthāna of the Carakasamhitā, which derives from Dṛḍhabala.

The evidence notwithstanding, some scholars disagree with this point of view.

A.F.R. Hoernle was convinced that Drdhabala is posterior to the period of composition of the Samgraha. He claimed ³⁴¹ that Drdhabala obtained his total of ninety-six eye diseases by adopting the number of ninety-four of the Samgraha and adding the two new diseases of Mādhava. This quite erroneous interpretation has been discussed in the section on Drdhabala. P.V. Sharma ³⁴² showed that Drdhabala simply accepted Karāla's number of eye diseases. ³⁴³ The other reasons that induced Hoernle to assigning Drdhabala to a period even later than Mādhava are equally wrong.

S. Dasgupta³⁴⁴ accepted Hoernle's statement that Drdhabala was acquainted with the *Samgraha* and, for that reason, he reproduced part of Hoernle's references.

P.V. Sharma³⁴⁵ expressed as his opinion that the Sangraha dates from shortly after Dṛḍhabala or from about the period of his activity, which explains that Kapilabala, Dṛḍhabala's father, is mentioned in it, not Dṛḍhabala himself. He asserts that the Sangraha does not quote from Dṛḍhabala's parts of the Carakasaṇhitā, because it dates from a period in which this version of the saṇhitā was not yet well known. An additional argument adduced by P.V. Sharma is the concise treatment of pañcakarman in the Sangraha, while this subject is dealt with much more elaborately by Dṛḍhabala.

Unfortunately, P.V. Sharma does not set forth where all the material of the Samgraha dealing with subjects treated by Dṛḍhabala may come from. He also fails to explain why Dṛḍhabala's name does not appear in the Hṛḍaya. P.V. Sharma's identification of the Kapilabala, quoted in the Saṃgraha (Sū.20.17), as Dṛḍhabala's father, is no more than a guess and therefore unsuited for chronological purposes.

One, rarely or never noticed, aspect of the relationship between Samgraha and Carakasamhitā has still to be mentioned. Material found in prose in one of the chapters of the Carakasamhitā appears in a versified form in the Samgraha.³⁴⁶

The relationship between Samgraha and Suśrutasaṃhitā is more difficult to determine. 347 In general, the Samgraha deals much more freely with material also occurring in the Suśrutasaṃhitā than with that found in the Carakasaṃhitā. The former is less often quoted literally, while very numerous verses of Saṃgraha and Carakasaṇhitā are identical. In spite of this striking difference, verses common to Suśrutasaṇhitā and Samgraha and verses closely related are not are at all. 348

P.V. Sharma³⁴⁹ is of the opinion that the revised and completed version of the *Su-śrutasaṃhitā* as now known to us was not yet available to the author of the *Saṃgrah*a, but he fails to give this claim a solid basis.

A.F.R.Hoernle ³⁵⁰ expressed as his opinion that this relationship is less certain than that with the Carakasamhitā because the Suśrutasamhitā is never actually quoted, but that, still, numerous indications point to a decided posteriority of the Samgraha to its revised and completed version, suggested, for example, by the treatment of the eye diseases, which follows the outline as found in Suśruta's Uttaratantra. He also points to the division of the Samgraha into the same sections as the Suśrutasamhitā. Hoernle's additional remark that the Indian tradition makes in the same direction cannot be accepted as a valid argument. His assertion that the Suśrutasamhitā is never actually quoted is far from the truth, but the presence of the same sections in Suśruta's work on the one hand and Samgraha and Hrdaya on the other, is a valid point, worthy of consideration.

An examination of the actual state of affairs may elucidate this issue.

Suśruta is mentioned several times in the Saṃgraha. The opening chapter (Sū.1.11) refers to him as one of the authors of a tantra, which is a straightforward indication that some version of the Suśrutasamhitā was known to the author of the Saṃgraha. 351

Suśruta is one of the sages and deities to be paid homage to in the preparation of the sarv \bar{a} rthasiddh $\bar{a}\bar{n}$ jana (S \bar{u} .8.59). 352

His opinion on the taste of pitta and kapha, when in a vidagdha state, is quoted

(Sū.20.18), ³⁵³ after Kapilabala's view on the tastes of doṣas which have increased. Su-śruta's opinion as referred to is in conformity with the *Suśrutasaṛṇḥitā* (Sū.21.11 and 15).

The dosopakramaṇīya chapter (Sū.21) discusses the views of a series of authorities on the order in which increased doṣas have to be controlled. The section referring to these very diverse opinions, absent from the *Hrdaya*, mentions two authorities by name, Parāśara and Suśruta. The latter teaches that there is no rule valid for all diseases. He prescribes that in fever and diarrhoea pitta should be subdued first, kapha next, and vāta last (Sū.21.22), 354 for reasons given in the next three stanzas.

Suśruta's point of view regarding ariṣṭas is quoted in the chapter of the Śārīrasthāna where Caraka and Kṛṣṇātreya are cited on the same subject. Suśruta asserts in a verse, borrowed from the Suśrutasaṃhitā³⁵⁵ indeed (A.s.Śā.10.32cd–33ab = Su.Sū.28.5), that the effect of an ariṣṭa can be counteracted by brāhmaṇas without blemish by means of rasāyana, tapas, etc.

Finally, Suśruta is referred to in the paribhāṣā section at the end of the Kalpasthāna. 356

Two figures to be dealt with in the same context as Suśruta are Dhanvantari and Kāśirāja.

Dhanvantari appears in the list of sages to whom Indra revealed the \bar{a} yurveda ($S\bar{u}$. 1.6). 357 He is; together with Suśruta, among the deities and sages to be honoured in the ritual accompanying the preparation of the sarvārthasiddhān jana ($S\bar{u}$.8.59). 358 Dhanvantari is also the authority who recommends the use of balātaila (\bar{S} ā.4.51). 359 On the subject of the diet of a pregnant woman, he declares what it should consist of from the eighth month onwards (\bar{S} ā.3.8). 360

The chapter on the treatment of poisoning (U.40) relates that Dhanvantari largely agrees with \bar{A} lamb \bar{a} yana on the substrates of the seven vegas of poison in those bitten by a snake. The only difference between the two is the substrate of the fourth vega: the sn \bar{a} yus according to \bar{A} lamb \bar{a} yana, the kostha according to Dhanvantari (U.40.36). The next two stanzas, on the role of the kal \bar{a} s, appear to come from the same source and represent views of the Dh \bar{a} nvantar \bar{a} yas according to Indu. \bar{a}

The name of $K\bar{a}$ sir \bar{a} ja appears once only among deities and sages to be honoured during a treatment with clysters ($S\bar{u}$.28.34). ³⁶³

This material makes clear that the Saingraha borrowed from the $Susrutasamhit\bar{a}$, but does not yet provide an answer to the problem whether or not the Uttaratantra was among its sources.

First, some examples among the borrowings from Susruta may be useful in illustrating the way this source is handled in the Samgraha.³⁶⁴

The divisions of time (Sū.4.3-4) are partly the same as those found in the Su-śrutasanhitā (Sū.6.4-5). The latter's muhūrta is replaced by the nāḍikā; 365 two of these constitute a muhūrta, which makes its duration twice as long as in Suśruta's scheme. Four muhūrta, minus one-fourth of it, make a yāma, a measure of time absent from Suśruta's division. Four yāma make one day and night, which corresponds to the thirty muhūrta of Suśruta.

The passage on the divisions of time of the Samgraha is more probably based on Su-

śruta than on a common source, because of the similarities in wording and the additions found in the Samgraha.

Remarkable is the relationship between several chapters of the Uttarasthāna of the Saṃgraha and the corresponding ones of the Nidānasthāna of the Suśrutasaṃhitā. It should be borne in mind that the main features of this relationship are common to Saṃgraha and Hrdaya.

An example is the connection between the mukharoga chapters (Su.Ni.16 and A.s. U.25 = A.h.U.21). Though the relatedness is clear, there are many differences, both in wording and contents, which exclude that the Saṃgraha version is simply based on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. The conclusion that the author of the Saṃgraha must have disposed of additional sources, next to the Suśrutasaṃhitā and works by which that treatise was influenced, is unavoidable.

A related issue concerns the rarely broached question which text of the Suśrutasamhitā was preferred by the author of the Samgraha. Details found in some chapters of the Śārīrasthāna ³⁶⁶ may indicate that he regarded Gayadāsa's text as authoritative.

A relationship between several chapters of the Uttarasthāna of the Saṃgraha and the Uttaratantra of the Suśrutasaṃhitā is obvious, without permitting a definitive judgment on the anteriority of the one or the other of these sections. A major difference is that the chapters of the Saṃgraha are partly in prose, while those of the Suśrutasaṃhitā are in verse. Even more important is the fact that the text of the Saṃgraha is more elaborate, gives more details, and presents new material. This state of affairs makes it necessary to examine whether the corresponding chapters of Suśruta's Uttaratantra are one of the sources of the Saṃgraha, more concise versifications of the Saṃgraha versions, or based on unknown common sources.

Some verses of the Samgraha are closely related to stanzas of the Uttaratantra of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, without being identical. ³⁶⁷ Several mantras are common to the Uttarasthāna of the Samgraha and Suśruta's Uttaratantra. ³⁶⁸

The Uttarasthāna of the Saṃgraha and the Uttaratantra of the Suśrutasaṃhitā differ considerably on numerous issues. A considerable number of these differences are common to Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya,³⁶⁹ but the former also presents many peculiar features.³⁷⁰

The provisional conclusion that can be deduced from this evidence remains that the links between the Uttarasthāna of the Samgraha and the Uttaratantra of the Suśrutasamhitā do not allow us to prove which of the two is earlier.

One testimony may, however, be seen as indicating that the Samgraha is later than the Uttaratantra of the Suśrutasamhitā. This testimony consists of Śivadāsasena's remark that Vāgbhaṭa follows Jejjaṭa in a particular verse of the Hṛdaya. ³⁷¹ Since the Samgraha contains a prose passage corresponding to the verse found in the Hṛdaya, ³⁷² the remark applies to both treatises. Jejjaṭa is known to have written a commentary on the whole of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, which leads to the conclusion that the Samgraha is later than the Uttaratantra, with the obvious proviso that Śivadāsasena's testimony can be accepted as trustworthy.

The fact that the Samgraha ends with an Uttarasthāna, resembling the Uttaratantra of the Suśrutasamhitā, has been seen as supporting the anteriority of the latter. ³⁷³ It

must be conceded that it is probable indeed that an Uttaratantra with the structure of an appendix precedes an Uttarasthāna that forms an integral part of a treatise.

Finally, a piece of indirect evidence may be interpreted as indicating that Saingraha and Hṛdaya are later than the version of the Suśrutasainhitā, together with its Uttaratantra, often ascribed to a Nāgārijuna. Narahari refers in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana (chapter 21) to the fact that Vāgbhaṭa adopted the variant bastidvāra (A.s.Śā.4.52; A.h.Śā.2.53) instead of the reading bastamāra of the Suśrutasaṇhitā (Ni.8.14),³⁷⁴ which was the source of the verse; his information that bastidvāra was the reading accepted by the Nāgārjunīyas may mean that Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya accepted some revised text of the Suśrutasanhitā, which was accompanied by the Uttaratantra.

Bheda is one of the authorities quoted in the Samgraha who are left to be discussed. P.V. Sharma identified some passages which may have been influenced by Bheda, but without his name being mentioned. One of these is the description of one of the ways of examining food by the royal physician in order to prevent poisoning of the king (A.s. Sū.8.6-8). This method, the examination of the food's rūpa, called annasvarūpaparīkṣā by P.V. Sharma, absent from Caraka and Suśruta, is found in the Bhelasaṃhitā (Sū.18.4-6).

The other medical authorities mentioned by name in the Samgraha³⁷⁵ do not give us clues as to its chronological position. Nevertheless, some of these names are of considerable interest, because they are absent from Caraka- and Suśrutasamhitā. These noteworthy names are: Ālambāyana, Bṛhaspati, ³⁷⁶ Kapilabala, Māṇḍavya, and Uśanas. ³⁷⁷ The recipes ascribed to Kautilya are not helpful in determining the date of the Saingraha.

The external and internal evidence, so far discussed, when taken together, leads to the conclusion that the Samgraha is later than Drdhabala's revised and completed version of the Carakasamhitā and, very probably, also posterior to the revised and completed version of the Suśrutasamhitā. The reliability of Śivadāsasena's remark that Jejjata was one of Vāgbhaṭa's sources determines whether or not the Samgraha is posterior to Jejjaṭa, who lived in the seventh or, at the latest, the eighth century. As to the lower limit, the Samgraha is probably earlier than the Mādhavanidāna and certainly earlier than Vnida's Siddhayoga.

Additional evidence concerning the chronological position of the Aṣṭāṅgasaṇŋgraha

Not directly related to the date of the Samgraha, but of importance for the chronological position of the works ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa in general, is a piece of evidence that, unfortunately, is of dubious value. One of the MSS of Niścala's commentary on the Cakradatta contains a quotation from an unspecified work of Vāgbhaṭa, which refers to the (Bodhi)caryāvatāra.³⁷⁸ If genuine, this quotation would prove that the work ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa that contained it is posterior to Śāntideva, the author of the Bodhi-

caryāvatāra, who probably lived in the seventh century. 379

Several other features of the Sangraha which may throw light on the period of its composition have been studied.

P.V. Sharma ³⁸⁰ advanced that the Saṃgraha shows influence from the side of the Atharvavedapariśiṣṭa, a work which he places in a period shortly before the Saṃgraha. The same treatise also influenced Varāhamihira's Bṛhatsaṃhitā, which dates, in P.V. Sharma's view, from about the same time as the Saṃgraha. He concludes that the Atharvavedapariśiṣṭa must have been popular then. An example mentioned by P.V. Sharma is the snapanādhyāya (A.s. U.5); parallels of this chapter ³⁸¹ mentioned by him are Atharvavedapariśiṣṭa 42 and Bṛhatsaṃhitā 47 (puṣyasnāna). ³⁸² Another example is the prescription to look at ghee, placed in a golden vessel, early in the morning (A.s. Sū.3.23). This practice, called ghṛtāvekṣaṇa, is known to the Atharvavedapariśiṣṭa (8) and the Bṛhatsaṃhitā ³⁸³

According to the same scholar, the $K\bar{a}$ manda $k\bar{t}$ ya $N\bar{t}$ tis \bar{a} ra 384 is another work that left clear traces in the Samgraha. 385 P.V. Sharma adduces as examples verses on daily regimen and on the duties of the royal physician towards the king. 386

Several scholars have claimed that Varāhamihira's *Bṛhatsaṇḥitā* contains quotations from Vāgbhaṭa³⁸⁷ in its kāndarpika chapter. ³⁸⁸

A rather careful study of this subject was written by B.P. Shastri, who was well aware that literal quotations are absent and that Varāhamihira may also have borrowed from Caraka and Suśruta. ³⁸⁹

The relevant chapter of the *Bṛhatsaṇhitā*³⁹⁰ contains a verse (75.3) that gives a vā-jīkaraṇa formulation related to A.s.U.49.392 = A.h.U.39.161, where it is a rasāyana formula. ³⁹¹ The substances employed are almost the same: equal parts of mākṣīkadhātu, honey, mercury, powdered iron, harītakī, śilājatu and ghee in the *Bṛhatsaṇhitā*; unspecified quantities of tāpya (= mākṣīka), honey, mercury, iron, harītakī, śilājatu, ghee and viḍaṅga in A.s. and A.h.; the duration of the treatment differs: twenty-one days in the *Bṛhatsaṃhitā*, fifteen in *Saṃgraha* and *Hṛdaya*. ³⁹² Direct borrowing is not an obvious fact in this case.

More verses from the kāndarpika chapter of the *Bṛhatsaṃhitā* deserve to be examined in order to see whether or not borrowing from *Saṃgraha* or *Hṛdaya* can be established or made probable.

Bṛhatsaṃhitā 75.4ab is said to be related to A.s.U.50.47a-d = A.h.U.40.31cd-32ab, which verse, however, is very closely related to Su.Ci.26.33. ³⁹³ Verse 75.4cd is regarded as related to A.h.U.40.24; this half-verse, mentioning māṣa beans, milk and ghee, may as well have been influenced by Su.Ci.26.29cd-30ab; a similar verse is found in the Saṃgraha (U.50.35); māṣa beans and milk are prescribed as aphrodisiacs in the Carakasaṃhitā too. ³⁹⁴ Verse 75.5 is related to A.s.U.50.41 = A.h.U.40.26, but also to Su.Ci.26.23. ³⁹⁵ Verse 75.6 is related to A.s.U.50.42 = A.h.U.40.27-28ab, but as well to Su.Ci.26.24-25ab. ³⁹⁶ Verse 75.7 is related to A.s.U.50.86 = A.h.U.40.25, but as well to Su.Ci.26.18cd and 19cd. ³⁹⁷ Verse 75.10 is said to be related to A.h. U.39.56-57 (absent from the Saṃgraha), ³⁹⁸ but this relationship is not convincing at all; the plant called gokṣuraka, present in both recipes, is frequently employed for rasāyana and vājīkarana purposes. Verse 75.11 is said to resemble two recipes

found in the chapter on the treatment of gulma (A.h.Ci.14.34 and 37; absent from the Samgraha), ³⁹⁹ but, again, the similarities, if present at all, are inconclusive.

The material collected shows that the alleged indebtedness of Vārāhamihira's kāndarpika chapter to the Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya has no firm basis. The adduced similarities exist as well between Brhatsamhitā and Suśrutasamhitā.

Resemblances between the kāndarpika chapter of the Bṛhatsaṃhitā and the Cara-kasamhitā have also been found.

Brhatsamhitā 75.8 is related to Ca.Ci.2¹.47;⁴⁰⁰ 75.9 is said to be related to Su.Ci. 26.16cd–18ab and Ca.Ci.2⁴.23–24, ⁴⁰¹ but the similarities are very superficial; ⁴⁰² 75.12 is said to be related to Ca.Ci.30.162cd–163ab, although Su.Ci.26.11 should be noticed as well. ⁴⁰³

Other aspects of the relationship between *Bṛhatsaṇṇhitā* and *Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha* have also been studied, in particular by P.V. Sharma, who is convinced that both lived in the same area in about the same period. 404

He lists the following similarities: mangalas in śārdūlavikrīdita metre in both texts; diversity of the metres used; 405 the same types of alamkāras; 406 both works are based on a large number of previous treatises; 407 acceptance of both ancient and newly acquired knowledge; 408 the mention of foreign peoples, such as the Yavanas, Cīnas, etc.; 409 the presence of the term mahāmātra; 410 references to the four varnas; 411 mention of the kalās (arts); religious syncretism in both; 412 influence of the Atharvaveda in both; the same type of geography; 413 the references to Purānic mythology; the importance of the nakṣatras; 414 the mention of śubha karaṇa, etc.; 415 the use of the term guhyaroga in both; 416 the similarities between several passages; 417 ancient authorities are called muni in both works; 418 the mention of an āvantikamuni by Varāhamihira, 419 and avantisoma by Vāgbhaṭa; references to the cult of Sūrya, the sun god; 420 the mention of maulikabhiṣajaḥ by Varāhamihira; 421 the acquaintance with Tantric practices; 422 the acquaintance with the process called bhānupāka in both works; 423 the same measure of the pala; 424 the increased importance of betel chewing; 425 the use of the term goṣtha; 426 the importance of the royal physician. 427

Dissimilarities listed by him are: more geographical names and names of peoples; ⁴²⁸ more diversity of the metres employed; ⁴²⁹ more alaṃkāras; ⁴³⁰ more influence of Kālidāsa; no mention of the Śakas; ⁴³¹ less religious tolerance; ⁴³² more influence of the *Atharvaveda*; the beginning use of the system of vāras.

P.V. Sharma concludes that the Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha is earlier than Varāhamihira's works or, more probably, of the same period.

P.V. Sharma suggested elsewhere 433 that Vāgbhata underwent the influence of Varāhamihira in his astronomical concepts, which led him to the conclusion that they lived in about the same period. 434

P.V. Sharma also examined the relationship between Brhatsamhitā on the one hand, and Caraka- and Suśrutasamhitā on the other. 435

As to the relationship with the $Carakasanhit\bar{a}$, he points to the use of the term triskandha. 436

The use of terms like maraka, 437 kuhaka, 438 and śalyahṛt may indicate an acquaintance with the Suśrutasamhitā.

All this material can, in my opinion, only suggest that the Saingraha and the works of Varāhamihira do not differ very much in age.

G.S. Pendse⁴³⁹ examined the relationship between the *Saṃgraha* and Vātsyāyana's *Kāmasūtra*. He concluded that the latter must be earlier, because of the occurrence of the terms kāntā and kāntānuvṛtti, discussed by Vātsyāyana, in the *Saṃgraha* (U.50.126 and 123),⁴⁴⁰ which also employs the term catuhsasthī for kāmaśāstra.⁴⁴¹

P.V. Sharma studied a large number of Sanskrit literary works in order to throw light on the chronological position of the Sangraha in relation to these compositions. 442

Aśvaghoṣa⁴⁴³ mentions Buddha as the mahābhiṣaj. ⁴⁴⁴ Some stanzas occurring in his works show similarities with verses of the *Sanıgraha*. ⁴⁴⁵ P.V. Sharma refers to the well-known fact that Aśvaghoṣa is earlier than the author of the *Sangraha*.

Kālidāsa's works show similarities and dissimilarities, when compared with the Sangraha. Their examination makes P.V. Sharma conclude that Kālidāsa is earlier. 446

Bhatti's Bhattikāvya, 447 Viśākhadatta's Mudrārākṣasa, 448 and Śūdraka's Mṛccha-katika⁴⁴⁹ are regarded as somewhat earlier than the Samgraha.

Bhāravi, the author of the *Kirātārjunīya*, ⁴⁵⁰ is thought to be contemporaneous with or slightly later than the author of the *Saṃgraha*, while the *Hṛdaya* was written after the period of Bhāravi's activity.

Subandhu's $V\bar{a}savadatt\bar{a}^{451}$ is judged to be posterior to the Samgraha. Both works show the same mixture of religions, give evidence of sun worship, and employ a series of the same terms (anisuka, 452 citrakalā, goṣṭhī, 453 kāyamāna, 454 maṭha, 455 pāṭalī, 456 veśyā). Mercury (pārada) is mentioned by Subandhu, 457 and even a pāradapiṇḍa made by a dhātuvādavid, which indicates that alchemy had developed further than in the period of the Samgraha.

Bāṇa ⁴⁵⁸ is put somewhat later than the author of the Sangraha. His works show religious syncretism, mention Buddha as the Jina, and give evidence of sun-worship. Coconut milk (nārikelodaka), described in the Sangraha, was known to Bāna, as well as the siddhāñjana. ⁴⁵⁹ The daily activities of the king are pictured in a way reminding one of the dinacaryā chapter of the Sangraha. The references to mercury and other metals demonstrate a later stage of development of alchemy than found in the Sangraha. ⁴⁶⁰

Daṇḍin's Daśakumāracarita⁴⁶¹ is thought to be later than the Saṃgraha. Daṇḍin's composition refers to the siddhāñjana, known from the Saṃgraha. Some terms employed by both Daṇḍin and the author of the Saṃgraha are aṃśuka, gupti,⁴⁶² maṭhikā, and pātalī.⁴⁶³

Māgha's Śiśupālavadha 464 is, to judge from its style, clearly later than the Sanggraha.

P.V. Sharma's detailed studies of all these texts show, again and again, that the Samgraha has features in common with works composed in the later Gupta period. 465

Other details found in the Saingraha, studied by the same scholar, confirm this picture.

The descriptions of the seasons contain elements characteristic of the Gupta age. ⁴⁶⁶ The description of the summer season mentions palm leaves (tālavṛnta) used for fanning (Sū.4.35)⁴⁶⁷ and a dhārāgṛha provided with a fountain (niṣpatadyantrasalila; Sū.

4.37).

The prescription of guggulu in medoroga and the description of klaibya, etc., point to the Gupta age. 468

The first mention of a cāraṇa (together with a kathaka) is found in the Saṃgraha. 469
The importance of añjanas and pādalepas, which belong to the Buddhist siddhis, points to the Gupta period. 470

Typical of the Gupta period is also the more prominent place of images; statues of Avalokiteśvara begin to appear more and more in that period; the number of arms of various deities grows larger.⁴⁷¹

The increasing influence of jyotişa in general is a characteristic of the Gupta age according to P.V. Sharma. ⁴⁷² Astrological considerations absent from Caraka and Su-śruta are found in the *Samgraha*. ⁴⁷³

Typical of this age too is the use of the term alin jara. 474

A rather important element for the determination of the date of the Samgraha is the state of development of rasaśāstra shown in that treatise. ⁴⁷⁵ Evidence regarding more frequent and new uses of particular inorganic substances and the introduction of new substances might throw some light on the period of its composition. Unfortunately, the data are scanty, in particular regarding mercury and mercurial compounds. ⁴⁷⁶

Pārada, not yet employed in *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasamhitā* as a term for mercury, occurs, once only, in the *Samgraha*. It is one of the ingredients in a recipe for a rasā-yana preparation to be taken internally, ⁴⁷⁷ which makes P.V. Sharma ⁴⁷⁸ suggest that processed mercury is meant, in spite of any reference to the processing of mercury in the *Samgraha*. ⁴⁷⁹

A substance called rasottama, sometimes thought to be mercury, is prescribed once, for external use in a lepa (A.s.U.30.80 = A.h.U.25.61cd-62ab). However, the verse mentioning it constitutes one of the numerous borrowings from the *Carakasamhitā* (Ci. 25.116), ⁴⁸⁰ which makes it unsuitable for determining the date of the *Samgraha*.

The meaning of this term is a problematic issue. Indu regards it as mercury (pārada). The verse mentioning it is also found in the Hrdaya (A.h.U.25.61cd-62ab), Siddhayoga (44.55), and Cakradatta (vraṇaśotha 101), which enables us to compare the interpretations of several commentators. Among the commentators on the Hrdaya, Artinadatta is silent, the $Kairal\bar{\imath}$ agrees with Indu, but Śivadāsasena, though identifying rasottama as pārada, adds that some are of the opinion that ghee is meant. The $Hrdayaprak\bar{a}sa$ of the $Ast\bar{a}ngahrdayakoṣa$ records that ghee is meant, though many (predecessors) identify rasottama as pārada, while the $Sivad\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}$ considers it to be rasānjana. The $Kusum\bar{a}val\bar{\imath}$ on the Siddhayoga remarks that rasottama is either pārada or ghee according to Cakra(pāṇidatta), or the juice (rasa) of sahakāra (i.e., the mango) according to Jinadāsa.

The verse forms part of the Cakradatta (vranasotha 101), where pāda b reads hemakālārasottamaiḥ. Sivadāsasena comments that rasottama is pārada, while others regard it as ghee. Niścalakara mentions that Cakra sees ghee in it, while Jinadāsa interprets it as the sweet juice of sahakāra; he himself is convinced that ghee is meant, because this is the substance corresponding to rasottama in an equivalent recipe of Jātūkarna quoted by him.

Among the alchemical apparatus, the mūṣā is known in the Saṃgraha; it is used in the preparation of the sarvārthasiddhāñjana (Sū.8.59) for heating gold and silver, and in the preparation of bhāskaracūṃa (U.16.27–29) for a related purpose. The mūṣā is, however, already mentioned in the Suśrutasaṃhitā (U.18.86) and is known to the Hṛdaya (U.13.30) too. The andhamūṣā is found in a verse common to Saṃgraha (U.16.24) and Hrdaya (U.13.20).

The properties and actions of the metals and alloys called suvarna, rūpya, tāmra, kāṃsya, pittala, trapu, sīsa, kṛṣṇaloha and tīkṣṇa(loha) are mentioned at A.s.Sū.12.8–14, but these verses are based on Suśruta. 481

Ādityapāka is mentioned at A.s.U.28.32 (an ādityapākataila) and 59 (the process of ādityapāka is used in the preparation of the mahānīlākhyayoga).

All this material on the state of rasaśāstra shows that the Samgraha dates from a period that saw the beginning of the increase in the use of inorganic substances.

The mention of the Śakas in the Samgraha and the speculation it has elicited have already been discussed. The influences of Buddhism prove that it was still a living force during the period that saw the coming into being of the Samgraha.⁴⁸²

Dates assigned to the Astārigasamgraha

Dates assigned to the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha are: ⁴⁸³ indefinite time B.C.; ⁴⁸⁴ the first or second century B.C.; ⁴⁸⁵ second-third centuries A.D.; ⁴⁸⁶ posterior to Caraka and Suśruta and anterior to Yājñavalkya (A.D. 350); ⁴⁸⁷ between the second and sixth centuries; ⁴⁸⁸ fifth or sixth century; ⁴⁸⁹ about A.D. 550, between the *Kāmasūtra* (about A.D. 400) and Varāhanuhira (A.D. 505–587); ⁴⁹⁰ late in the sixth or early in the seventh century; ⁴⁹¹ about A.D. 625; ⁴⁹² shortly before I-ching; ⁴⁹³ not later than seventh century A.D.; ⁴⁹⁴ between seventh and eighth centuries; ⁴⁹⁵ earlier than the eighth century; ⁴⁹⁶ between 1010 and 1055 (during the reign of king Bhoja of Dhārā). ⁴⁹⁷

Date of the Astāngahrdayasamhitā

Some non-Indian sources which are important among the external evidence will be discussed first.

The Tibetan translations of the *Hṛdaya* and Candranandana's commentary provide a trustworthy lower limit for both works. Candranandana's commentary, the *Padā-rthacandrikā*, was rendered into Tibetan by Rin-chen bzań-po between the years 1013 and 1055, the *Hṛdaya* by the Indian scholar (mkhan-po) Jārandhara and Rin-chen bzaň-po in the same period. ⁴⁹⁸

The hypothesis that the *Hṛdaya* is meant in the Arabic sources referring to a *Kitāb* asānkar al-jāmi' cannot be proved with certainty. 499

An Arabic author who does undoubtedly refer to the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṇḥitā is 'Alī ibn Sahl al-Ṭabarī, who names among his Indian medical sources Caraka, Suśruta, the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya, and the Nidāna in his Firdaws al-ḥikma fī'l ṭibb, written in A.D. 849/850. The Aṣṭāngahṛdaya is quoted by name once; 501 material deriving from the Hṛdaya is found in several chapters. 502

Reliable evidence also consists of quotations in later works, with the obvious proviso that identical verses are absent from the Samgraha.

The earliest commentator to quote from Vāgbhaṭa is, according to P.V. Sharma, ⁵⁰³ Jejjaṭa in his commentary on the *Carakasaṃhitā*. This assertion is unjustified, since the quotation referred to actually forms part of Cakra's commentary. ⁵⁰⁴

The earliest treatise to incorporate numerous verses taken from either Samgraha or Hrdaya is the Mādhavanidāna. Several chapters of the Nidānasthānas of Samgraha and Hrdaya are identical, which makes it impossible to decide which of the two was employed as a source. Stanzas that can only be from the Hrdaya, because the corresponding chapter of the Samgraha is in prose, are, fortunately, not rare at all, 505 which proves that the Hrdaya was known to Mādhava.

Vrnda quotes Vāgbhata by name once only in his *Siddhayoga*, but this verse (1. 27) forms part of both *Samgraha* and *Hrdaya* (A.h.Ci.1.5 = A.s.Ci.1.6). Verses that can derive from the *Hrdaya* only are found at several places in the *Siddhayoga*, ⁵⁰⁶ which, as to be expected, shows that the former was extant in the period of Vrnda's activity.

The Cakradatta uses the Hrdaya extensively as a source, 507 which, again, does not add new chronological clues.

The uncertain dates of several Purāṇas prevent that data they contain can be made use of in determining the date of the *Hṛdaya*. This applies in the first place to the *Garu-dapurāṇa*, which contains a version of the Nidānasthāna of the *Hṛdaya*. ⁵⁰⁸ The *Agnipu-rāṇa* ⁵⁰⁹ and the *Viṣṇudharmottarapurāṇa* ⁵¹⁰ present short medical sections with some similarities.

The sources of the *Hṛdaya* are, in the same way as those of the *Saṃgraha*, of much importance for the determination of its terminus post quem. Some commentators provide us with material on this issue.

Cakrapāṇidatta remarks (ad Ca.Ci.3.197–200ab) that Vāgbhaṭa follows Śaunaka; the uncertain date of this authority makes the remark unsuitable for chronological purposes.

Cakrapāṇidatta also states (ad Ca.Sū.7.45–50) that Vāgbhaṭa follows Haricandra in a verse on the months suitable to the elimination of doṣas that accumulated in a particular season. He literally quotes A.h.Sū.13.33cd–34ab as the verse that agrees with Haricandra's opinion, without declaring explicitly whether or not it is a direct borrowing. Niścala records (ad Cakradatta, sneha 6) that Vāgbhaṭa quotes Bhaṭṭārahari(ś)candra's own samhitā (svasamhitā). The reproduced ardhaśloka from Hari(ś)candra's treatise is closely related to A.h.Sū.13.33cd without being completely identical. The order of the months mentioned differs slightly: kārttike śrāvaṇe in Niścala's quotation, śrāvaṇe kārttike in the text of the Hṛdaya. This small difference is not without importance, for the order of the months has to correspond to the order of the seasons enumerated in the second half of the verse. They do correspond, correctly, in the verse of the Hṛdaya, which implies that the second half of Haricandra's verse, as cited by Niścala, must differ from A.h.Sū.13.34ab. This second half, identical in Haricandra's saṃhitā and Vāgbhaṭa's work according to Niścala, is different indeed in such a way that the traditional correspondences are maintained. However, since this ardhaśloka is not identical with

A.h.Sū.34ab, we are faced with a problem. Cakra throws some light on this question. He quotes the complete stanza, which remains incomplete in Niścala's commentary, where pāda d is missing, as an alternative śloka read by someone (probably not Haricandra), adding that it is of no concern because its meaning is the same. Śivadāsa, however, who quotes the second half of the alternative verse (ad Ca.Sū.13.45–50) as coming from some other treatise, objects to its mention of incorrect intervals of three months. The material available shows that the *Hṛdaya* follows Haricandra, but does not enable us to decide whether or not it quotes him literally. The verse discussed does not form part of the *Saṃgraha*. The interrelatedness of the dates of Hari(ś)candra and the *Hṛdaya* does not permit a conclusion from the discussed material on the date of the latter.

Another indication regarding the chronological position of the *Hrdaya* is supplied by Śivadāsasena. This commentator remarks (ad *Cakradatta*, dantamūlaroga 23–24), when quoting A.h.U.22.41cd, that Vāgbhaṭa follows Jejjaṭa, which would mean, if Śivadāsa can be trusted, that the latter preceded the former, which cannot be excluded, because Jejjaṭa lived in the seventh or, at the latest, the eighth century. 511

The commentator on the $\bar{A}yurved\bar{a}bdhis\bar{a}ra$ claims that one verse of the Hrdaya (Ni. 2.44cd–45ab) has been borrowed from Hārīta, ⁵¹² but this remark does not elucidate the date of the Hrdaya

The internal evidence on the sources of the *Hṛdaya* consists in the first place of authorities mentioned in the treatise itself.

Ātreya's name appears, in the same way as in the Samgraha, at the beginning of each chapter. Called Atriputra (Atri's son), he receives, together with other sages, the āyurveda from Indra (Sū.1.3). Ātreya, under the name of Atrinandana (also meaning Atri's son), is mentioned as the one who states that the junctures (sandhi) are 2,000 in number, while Dhanvantari regards their number to be 210 (Śā.3.16cd-17ab). His opinion on the agent responsible for the digestion of the food (the annapaktar) is contrasted with that of another authority not referred to by name, who is, however, Dhanvantari (Śā.3.49); ⁵¹³ Ātreya declares that the heat (ūṣman) inherent in doṣas, dhātu and malas is this agent, whereas the other authority considers it to be the pācakapitta. Ātreya is said to learn that, when a disease suddenly leaves off in a weak patient, his life is endangered (Śā.5.128). The recipe called puṣyānugacūrṇa is described as being esteemed by Ātreya (U.34.50ab). ⁵¹⁴ Ātreya is mentioned as Agniveśa's teacher (U.40.59); Ātreya, called Punarvasu on this occasion, is referred to again as the teacher of Agniveśa (U.40.62).

Caraka is mentioned a number of times. His definition of vīrya (Ca.Ci.26.65) is quoted (Sū.9.13cd-14ab). ⁵¹⁵ Caraka's name appears, together with those of other ancient authorities, in a few verses towards the end of the treatise (U.40.84 and 88). ⁵¹⁶

Agniveśa receives the āyurveda from Atriputra ($S\bar{u}$.1.3–4ab). His opinion on the maryādās of the doṣas in fevers is contrasted with that of Hārīta (A.h.Ni.2.60–63 = A.s. Ni.2.62–66). Agniveśa is, together with Bheḍa and others, a pupil of Ātreya (U.40.59); he is the foremost pupil of Punarvasu (Ātreya) (U.40.62).

Suśruta's opinion on the treatment of granthi (U.30.31c-f) is contrasted with that

of Nimi (U.30.30cd-31ab), and, again, with that of an unnamed authority (U.30.32). Susruta is mentioned, together with Caraka and other authorities, towards the end of the treatise (U.40.84 and 88).

Dhanvantari is the authority recommending balātaila (Śā.2.52).⁵¹⁷ His number of bones in the human body is three hundred,⁵¹⁸ his number of junctures two hundred and ten (Śā.3.16–17a).⁵¹⁹ In Dhanvantari's opinion, the pittadharā kalā is the grahanī (Śā.3.50). A dhānvantara ghee, called after Dhanvantari, is prescribed (Ci.10.63ab; 17.14ab);⁵²⁰ its preparation and its actions are described (Ci.12.19cd–24).⁵²¹

Bheda is mentioned in connection with the recipe of sahācarataila (Ci.21.70-73ab), as in the Samgraha. He is, together with Agniveśa and others, one of the pupils of Agniveśa (U.40.59). One of the last verses refers to him as a medical authority (U.40.88).

The other authorities mentioned in the *Hrdaya* are not helpful in elucidating its date.

This internal evidence on the sources of the *Hrdaya* does not give us new chronological clues, when compared with that found in the *Samgraha*.

The *Hrdaya* is obviously posterior to Drdhabala's recension of the *Carakasam-hitā*, ⁵²² because it contains many verses which are literally identical with verses found in the chapters that Drdhabala contributed.

It is also later than the Suśrutasamhita before its later revision and the addition of the Uttaratantra because Suśruta is referred to. Some verses of the Hrdaya are almost identical with stanzas found in the Cikitsāsthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā, 523

Divergent opinions have been expressed concerning the question whether or not the *Hṛdaya* is later than the revision of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* often ascribed to a Nāgārjuna. This issue poses problems similar to those discussed with respect to the *Saṃgraha*, but it should be noted that the *Hṛdaya* contains some verses, absent from the *Saṃgraha*, which are very close to stanzas found in the Uttaratantra of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, ⁵²⁴ and, more importantly, a number of verses common to both works. ⁵²⁵ These facts are in favour of the hypothesis that the Uttaratantra belongs to the sources of the *Hṛdaya*.

Other features of the Hrdaya have been used in elucidating its date.

The relationship between *Hrdaya* and Śukranīti has been studied by P.V. Sharma, ⁵²⁶ who claims ⁵²⁷ that the sadvṛtta section of the *Hrdaya* has about fifty verses in common with the Śukranīti, ⁵²⁸ which, for that reason, must have existed in some form before the *Hrdaya* was written, in spite of the late date of the version now known. ⁵²⁹ This possibility is confirmed by quotations from the Śukranīti in Candeśvara's *Rājanītiratnākara*, ⁵³⁰

P.V. Sharma⁵³¹ advanced that the *Hrdaya* must be later than Bhāravi's *Kirātār junī-ya*, because the latter's alaṃkāras have influenced the former.

G.S. Pendse⁵³² argued that the *Hṛdaya* must be later than Vātsyāyana's *Kāmasūtra*, a work that is in all probability referred to. ⁵³³

Mercury (pārada) is prescribed in a verse common to *Hrdaya* and *Saṃgraha* (A.h. U.39.161 = A.s.U.49.392). Additional references to mercury are found at A.h.U.32.31 (pārada) and U.13.36 (rasendra).⁵³⁴ These two verses mention it as an ingredient of preparations for external use.

Sulphur may be prescribed for external use only. 535

The alchemical apparatus called mūṣā is known to the Hṛdaya (U.13.30). The

andhamūṣā is mentioned in a verse common to *Hrdaya* and *Saṃgraha* (A.h.U.13.20 = A.s.U.16.24) and in one more verse (A.h.U.13.32).

Atrideva (ABI 210) says that the variety of the metres used and the preference for long compounds point to the Gupta age.

All this material does not advance very much the determination of the date of the *Hṛdaya*. The facts known prove that it is later than Dṛḍhabala's version of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and earlier than the *Mādhavanidāna*. If Śivadāsa is reliable, the *Hṛdaya* may be posterior to Jejjata.

Dates assigned to the Astangahrdayasamhita

Dates assigned to the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā are: ⁵³⁶ first or second century B.C.; ⁵³⁷ fifth century A.D. or earlier; ⁵³⁸ there is no reason to put him more than a century after his elder namesake; ⁵³⁹ earlier than the seventh century; ⁵⁴⁰ seventh century at the latest; ⁵⁴¹ the earlier part of the seventh century; ⁵⁴² seventh century, shortly before I-ching; ⁵⁴³ between the seventh and eighth centuries; ⁵⁴⁴ the eighth century; ⁵⁴⁵ the eighth or ninth century; ⁵⁴⁶ eighth century at the latest; ⁵⁴⁷ between the eighth and tenth centuries; ⁵⁴⁸ ninth century; ⁵⁴⁹ the end of the twelfth to the beginning of the thirteenth century; ⁵⁵⁰ no conclusion. ⁵⁵¹

Structural features of the Samgraha and the Hrdaya

The division into sections (sthāna) agrees, broadly, with that of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, and differs considerably from that found in the Carakasaṃhitā. The latter's Vimāna-, Indriya- and Siddhisthānas are absent, as they are from the Suśrutasaṃhitā. An Uttarasthāna is added, in the same way as the Uttaratantra to the Suśrutasaṃhitā, but, as its title indicates, it forms an integral part of the treatise. The order of the sections differs from that found in Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā in placing the Śārīrasthāna before the Nidānasthāna. This may be seen as an improvement, because the subject matter is arranged more systematically in this way, by dealing first with all general subjects before beginning to describe the diseases and their treatment.

The contents of the sthanas show many innovations.

The procedures belonging to pañcakarman, dealt with in the Siddhisthāna of the Carakasamhitā and the last part of the Cikitsāsthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā, form part of the Sūtrasthāna and Kalpasthāna, and are, in the Sūtrasthāna, preceded by chapters on oleation (sneha) and sudation (sveda), as in Suśruta's Cikitsāsthāna, while the chapters on these topics in Caraka's Sūtrasthāna appear to have no appropriate context. 552 The subjects discussed in Caraka's Indriyasthāna, which are incorporated in the Sūtrasthāna of Sangraha and Hrdaya,

The order of the diseases discussed in the Nidānasthāna is peculiar and differs considerably from that found in the corresponding sections of Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā.

The first chapter (sarvaroganidāna) is on the five elements constituting nidāna, on some related concepts, the causes of excitement of the dosas, and astrological consid-

erations relating to fevers.

Chapter two is on fever, which is also the first disease described in the Nidānasthāna of the Carakasamhitā. Chapter three is on raktapitta and kāsa, thus illustrating a pronounced special feature, consisting of the grouping together of particular diseases in one chapter, a practice already present, but less conspicuously, in the Nidānasthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā. Raktapitta is dealt with in chapter two of Caraka's Nidānasthāna, not in Suśruta's Nidānasthāna; the nidāna of kāsa is absent from the Nidānasthānas of Caraka and Suśruta and discussed in Ca.Ci.18 and Su.U.52 respectively; the description of kasa immediately after raktapitta is explained by the statement that it is a dangerous complication of raktapitta (A.s.Ni.3.18cd-19 = A.h.Ni.3.16cd-17ab); an interesting parallel is the presence of a chapter on kāsanidāna in the Bhelasamhitā (Ni.4.). Chapter four is on śvāsa and hidhmā, subjects not dealt with in the Nidānasthānas of Caraka and Suśruta, but often clustered together, for example in Ca.Ci.17, and thought to be related to kāsa (Ca.Ci.18). Chapter five begins with the nidāna of rājayaksman, described in the Nidānasthāna of the Carakasamhitā (Ni.6: śosanidāna), but absent from the Nidānasthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā; it proceeds with the nidana of svarabheda, arocaka, chardi, hrdroga and trsna, regarded as upadravas of rājayaksman and not discussed in Caraka's Nidānasthāna. Chapter six is remarkable in being devoted to madātyaya, absent from the Nidānasthānas of Caraka and Suśruta; the same chapter discusses mada, mūrchā and samnyāsa. Chapter seven deals with arsas, absent from Caraka's, but present in Susruta's Nidānasthāna. Chapter eight describes the nidana of atīsara and grahanī, both absent from Caraka's and Suśruta's Nidānasthānas. Chapter nine is about mūtrāghāta and related disorders, not described in the Nidānasthāna of Caraka; Suśruta has a chapter on the nidāna of aśmarī and śarkarā (Ni.3). Chapter ten, on prameha, has a corresponding chapter in the Nidānasthānas of Caraka (Ni.4) and Suśruta (Ni.6); this chapter also describes the pramehapitikās. Chapter eleven is devoted to the cluster consisting of vidradhi, vrddhi and gulma; gulma is dealt with in the Nidānasthāna of Caraka (Ni.3) and vidradhi in a separate chapter of the Nidānasthāna of the Suśrutasamhitā (Ni.9), while vrddhi is described, together with upadamśa and ślīpada, in a chapter of Suśruta's Nidānasthāna (Ni.12). Chapter twelve deals with udara, absent from Caraka's, but present in Suśruta's Nidānasthāna (Ni.7). Chapter thirteen has an unusual cluster: pāndu(roga), śopha and visarpa; Suśruta deals with visarpa in a chapter with another cluster (Ni.10: visarpa, nādī, stanaroga), while all three are absent from Caraka's Nidānasthāna. Chapter fourteen is about kustha, śvitra and krmi(roga); kustha, to which svitra is closely related, is described in the Nidanasthanas of both Caraka (Ni.5) and Suśruta (Ni.5), where kmiroga is absent. Chapter fifteen discusses vātavyādhi, absent from Caraka's, but present in Suśruta's Nidānasthāna (Ni.1). Chapter sixteen is devoted to vātaśonita, absent from Caraka's and Suśruta's Nidānasthāna.

The Cikitsāsthāna describes the treatment of the diseases discussed in the Nidānasthāna, but has more chapters by splitting up some of the clusters.

The Kalpasthāna differs from the sections of the same name of Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā in being devoted to emetic and purgative procedures, to complications that may occur during them, to the treatment with clysters and its complications, and to rules for the preparation of drugs.

The contents of the Uttarasthāna differfrom those of Suśruta's Uttaratantra in dealing only partly with the same topics and these in a different order. Remarkable is the systematic arrangement of its subject matter: kaumārabhṛtya, 553 bhūtavidyā, 554 mānasaroga (mental disorders), 555 śālākya, 556 śalya, 557 kṣudrarogas, 558 guhyarogas, 559 agadatantra, 560 rasāyana, 561 and vājīkaraṇa. 562 The presence of the chapters on rasāyana and vājīkaraṇa at the end of the treatise is very remarkable; these subjects are discussed at the beginning of the Cikitsāsthāna in the Carakasaṃhitā, while the relevant chapters precede those on pañcakarman and related topics in the Cikitsāsthāna of the Suśrutasaṃhitā.

This survey demonstrates that Sangraha and Hrdaya do not simply follow either Caraka or Suśruta by selecting when to follow the one or the other, but have, apart from being influenced by the preceding two works, an independent orientation, shown by the the structure of their sthānas.

Hoemle⁵⁶³ expressed as his opinion that it was Vāgbhaṭa's object to gather up into a harmonious whole the more or less conflicting medical systems current in his time, especially those contained in the saṃhitās of Caraka and Suśruta. Hoemle added that, in pursuance of this object, Vāgbhaṭa introduced, especially with reference to the diseases of the eye, many modifications in the classification and nomenclature which had hitherto been accepted. He also supposed that it led Vāgbhaṭa to the adoption of compromises – by no means always successful – of which his exposition of the skeleton presents a conspicuous example.

These conclusions, mainly based on Hoemle's detailed and systematic study of Indian osteology, require a critical appraisal, departing from a renewed comparison of the texts of Samgraha and Hrdaya with the Caraka- and Suśrutasamhitā.

Both Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya contain much material that is literally found in the Carakasaṃhitā. Adaptations, very close to the original text, are also frequent.

The attitude towards the Suśrutasaṃhitā is completely different, since it is less frequently quoted. Passages in prose and verse found in Saṃgraha and Hṛḍaya may be close to the text of the Suśrutasaṃhitā, but contain almost always changes.

These contrasting ways of handling the treatises of Caraka and Susruta are hard to explain.

Worthy of as much attention, but less taken notice of, ⁵⁶⁴ is the absence of material found in Caraka and Suśruta. The expositions of theories allied to the Vaiśeṣika, Sāṃkhya and Nyāya systems of philosophy, important aspects of the *Carakasaṃhitā*, are conspicuous by their absence. This applies, for example, as well to the chapter on the three aims of life (Sū.11: traiṣaṇīya), the description of the way to liberation (mokṣa), and the discussions of groups of sages. In general, the role of the mahābhūtas recedes into the background.

Hoemle is not justified in claiming that the object of both treatises was to harmonize conflicting views of Caraka and Suśruta. In any case, it is not the only aim. The Sangraha in particular very often mentions side by side disagreeing opinions which derive from these authorities. Sometimes one of them or both names are mentioned, sometimes they are absent.

An example is the list specifying the amounts of the bodily constituents. Samgraha (Śā.5.63) and Hṛdaya (Śā.3.80–81) follow Caraka, but the Samgraha adds the opinion of the Dhanvantarīyas (Śā.5.65), which agrees with that of Suśruta.

The chapter on the vessels of the Samgraha states that sirās and dhamanīs are specialized types of vessels (srotas), which means that they are essentially the same. The point of view that all three are different structures is referred to as held by others, as is a third opinion that vessels have many names (Śā.6.20). The first theory, accepted by the author, is that found in the Carakasaṃhitā, the second theory is characteristic of the Suśrutasamhitā.

Both examples do not testify to a tendency to harmonization.

This is not to say that a tendency to accept both Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā is completely absent.

An example illustrating this tendency in the Samgraha is the presence of two mantras aiming at an easy delivery (Śā.3.20–22). The first derives from Caraka (Śā.8.39), the second is identical with one of Suśruta's cyāvanamantras (Ci.15.6–8). The Hrdaya omits these mantras, restricting itself to the recommendation to perform the required ceremonies (Śā.1.77). ⁵⁶⁵ Another example is the osteological system. ⁵⁶⁶ A third example is the typology of the napumsakas in the Samgraha. Its eight types (Śā.2.21–28) clearly result from a combination of the lists of Caraka and Suśruta. ⁵⁶⁷ A fourth example is the classification of the types of prameha, ⁵⁶⁸ a fifth that of the types of kustha, ⁵⁶⁹ a sixth that of the types of sveda. ⁵⁷⁰

Another feature of both Samgraha and Hrdaya consists of a tendency to complete developments already on their way in the works of Caraka and Suśruta. This is illustrated by the names of the five kinds of kapha, absent from Caraka and Suśruta, but supplied for the first time by Samgraha and Hrdaya (A.h.Sū.12.15–18ab; A.s.Sū.20.4).

A remarkable feature of the Saṃgraha is that it versifies the material found in prose in one of the chapters of the Carakasaṃhitā. ⁵⁷¹ Evidence of the same procedure, applied to the Suśrutasaṃhitā, is found in the chapters on groups of drugs in both Saṃgraha and Hrdaya. ⁵⁷²

The obvious fact that *Saṃgraha* and *Hṛdaya* have many features in common belongs to the arsenal of arguments adduced by many scholars to defend the view that they were written by one and the same person. Such a conclusion is, however, not justified at all. The *Hṛdaya* is simply largely based on the *Saṃgraha* or it is the other way round, which explains what is common to both, while, moreover, the considerable number of discrepancies conflicts with a common authorship.

Special features common to the Samgraha and the Hrdaya

The amount of special features found in both treatises is large; a series of examples may suffice to give an impression of their number and importance.

Transitional periods between seasons (rtusandhi) are described (A.s.Sū.4.61; A.h.Sū.3.58); they consist of the seven last and seven first days of a season; ⁵⁷³ the chapters on the groups of drugs (A.s.Sū.16; A.h.Sū.15) omit some of Suśruta's gaṇas (Sū.38)⁵⁷⁴ and make some changes in other groups; ⁵⁷⁵ an additional blunt instrument

(yantra), called mucundī (A.h.Sū.25.9) or mucutī (A.s.Sū.34.6) is described: some more additional yantras are: angulītrāṇaka (A.h.Sū.25.21; A.s.Sū.34.11), śrnga, alābu and ghatī (A.s.Sū.34.13; A.h.Sū.25.26-28ab); valkala and latā are absent among the anuvantras (A.s.Sū.34.17; A.h.Sū.25.39cd-40), although they form part of Suśruta's list; 576 the number of sharp instruments (sastra) is twenty-six (A.s.Sū.34.21; A.h.Sū. 26.1), whereas their number is twenty in the Suśrutasamhitā (Sū.8.3); 577 some added śastras are the sarpavaktra (A.s.Sū.34,21) or sarpāsva (A.h.Sū.26.8ab) and kartarī (A.s.Sū.34.26; A.h.Sū.26.17cd); the surgical procedures (sastrakarman) are of twelve (A.s.Sū.34.22) or thirteen kinds (A.h.Sū.26.28cd-29ab), while they are of eight kinds in Suśruta (Sū.8.4; Sū.25), of six kinds in Caraka (Ci.25.55); ⁵⁷⁸ kāmalā (iaundice) is described as a disease that may arise without the presence of panduroga in a person who has a profuse amount of pitta (pittolbana) (A.s.Ni.13,18cd; A.h.Ni.13.17cd); 579 the number of balagrahas is twelve, while Suśruta has a number of nine; added are Śvagraha, Pitrgraha and Śuskarevatī; 580 the number of eye diseases is ninety-four (A.s. U.20.36 = A.h.U.16.60cd-61ab; ⁵⁸¹ the diseases of the ears are twenty-five in number (A.s.U.21.30; A.h.U.17.26cd), whereas Suśruta's number is twenty-eight; 582 new diseases of the ears are: kuci- or kūcikarnaka (A.s.U.21.17; A.h.U.17.16ab), pālīśosa (A.s.U.21.21; A.h.U.17.19ab), pippalī (A.s.U.21.18; A.h.U.17.16cd-17a), tantrikā (A.s.U.21.22; A.h.U.17.19cd), and vidārikā (A.s.U.21.19-20; A.h.U.17.17b-18); 583 gallira is new as a synonym of unmantha (A.s.U.21.26; A.h.U.17.23ab); karnaśūla is described much more elaborately (A.s.U.21.2-4; A.h.U.17.1-3) than in Suśruta (U.20.6); five types are distinguished and characterized, whereas Suśruta has one type only; 584 a purulent discharge is described in karnaśūla due to pitta (A.s.U.21.5; A.h.U.17.4-5ab); 585 the techniques for repair of the earlobes (A.s.U.22.53-68) have names that partly differ from those used in the Suśrutasamhitā; an additional technique is called śuskaśaskuli; the number of diseases of the nose is eighteen (A.s.U.23.27ef; A.h.U.19.27cd), while Suśruta's number is thirty-one; the disease of the nose called apīnasa is elaborately and very well described; the term singhānaka is used for the mucous discharge (A.s.U.23.20-21 = A.h.U.19.20-21); 586 putaka is a new disease of the nose (A.s.U.23.25; A.h.U.19.25); the mukharogas are seventy-five in number, while Suśruta's number is sixty-five; khandaustha (A.s.U.25.4 = A.h.U.21.3cd) and gandālajī (A.s.U.25.14 = A.h.U.21.1 lab) are new; the descriptions of dālana (A.s.U. 25.15 = A.h.U.21.11cd-12ab) and dantaharsa (A.s.U.25.16 = A.h.U.21.12cd-13ab) differ from those in the Suśrutasamhitā; bhañ janaka and hanumoksa are omitted; cāla (A.s.U.25.17cd = A.h.U.21.14ab), dantabheda (A.s.U.25.17ab = A.h.U.21.13cd), karāla (A.s.U.25.18 = A.h.U.21.14cd), and adhidanta (A.s.U.25.19 = A.h.U.21.15) are added;⁵⁸⁷ adhijihva is a jihvāroga (A.s.U.25.38 = A.h.U.21.34-35ab), whereas it is one of the kantharogas in the Suśrutasamhitā (Ni.16.52); the description of this disease does not agree with Suśruta; 588 the chapters on mukharoga do not describe adhrusa and tundikerī among the diseases of the palate (A.s.U.25; A.h.U.21), although mentioned as such by Suśruta; tālupitakā (A.s.U.25.40 = A.h.U.21.36.) replaces adhrusa, while tundikerikā (A.s.U.25.54 = A.h.U.21.47) is a disease of the throat; Suśruta's māmsasamghāta is replaced by tālusamhati (A.s.U.25.42 = A.h.U.21.38cd); galārbuda (A.s.U.25.60 = A.h.U.21.52cd-53ab) and galaganda (A.s.U.25.61 = A.h.U.21.53c-f)

640

are regarded as belonging to the mukharogas; ⁵⁸⁹ a new mukharoga called ūrdhvaguda (A.s.U.25.68 = A.h.U.21.60), characterized by foetor ex ore, is added; ⁵⁹⁰ an arbuda due to kapha and pūyāsyatā (A.s.U.25.73 = A.h.U.21.64ab) are two more new mukharogas; ⁵⁹¹ tooth extraction is described (A.s.U.26.18; A.h.U.22.23–27ab); ⁵⁹² a group of nine kapālarogas is new as an addition to the śirorogas (A.s.U.27.21 = A.h.U.23.20cd); the main part of this group belongs to Suśruta's kṣudrarogas; ⁵⁹³ a new disease belonging to the group is upaśīṛṣaka (A.s.U.27.22 = A.h.U.23.21); anantavāta is absent from the śirorogas, while śiraḥkampa is added (A.s.U.27.15 = A.h.U.23.15cd); ⁵⁹⁴ two separate chapters deal with guhyarogas (A.s.U.38 and 39; A.h.U. 33 and 34). ⁵⁹⁵

A few new prescriptions found in both works are: a phanta or hima of draksa, perfumed by jātī flowers (A.s.Ci.1.84cd = A.h.Ci.1.57ab);⁵⁹⁶ the expressed juice (svarasa) or decoction (śrta) of vāsā, also called vrsa, with sugar and honey against raktapitta (A.s.Ci.3.31; A.h.Ci.2.26); ⁵⁹⁷ the kalpas of nāgabalā, mandūkapamī, (madhu)yasti and vittausadha (= ginger) (A.s.Ci.5.66-67 = A.h.Ci.3.118cd-120ab); powdered coral (pravālacūrna) with tandulodaka against mūtrāghāta due to kapha (A.s.Ci.13.5; A.h.Ci.11.13ab); ⁵⁹⁸ haridrā together with honey and āmalaka juice, or the expressed juice of either gudūcī or āmalaka, against all types of prameha (A.s.Ci.14.5; A.h.Ci.12.5cd-7ab); ⁵⁹⁹ erandataila with milk against gulma due to pitta (A.s.Ci.16.15; A.h.Ci.14.43); 600 an electuary with kampillaka against the same disorder (A.s.Ci.16.19; A.h.Ci.14.61cd); 601 the rasāvanaprayogas with tuvaraka keruels. bhallātaka, avalguja (= bākucikā), and citraka (= vahni), described in the chapter on the treatment of haemorrhoids (A.s.Ci.21.24; A.h.Ci.19.53);602 the mānibhadravataka against kustha (A.s.Ci.21.32-33; A.h.Ci.19.31-32); 603 purification in cases of kustha may be carried out by the administration of emetics once in six weeks, purgatives each month, evacuatives for the head every three days, and by bloodletting once in six months (A.s.Ci.21.133 = A.h.Ci.19.96); 604 garlic against all cases of avarana of vata, with the exception of avarana by pitta and blood (A.s.Ci.24.50 = A.h.Ci.22.70cd-71ab);⁶⁰⁵ a decoction of saptacchada- and arkaksīra in krmidantaka (A.s.U.26.16; A.h.U.22.20); 606 hingu and katphala in toothache (A.s.U.26.17; A.h.U.22.21); 607 triphalā with honey against mukhapāka (A.s.U.26.51; A.h.U.22.73cd-74); 608 erandataila, together with cow's urine, to be drunk for a month in slīpada due to vāta (A.s.U.35.19; A.h.U.30.8cd-9); 609 vardhamānaharītakī in ślīpada due to kapha (A.s.U. 35.21; A.h.U.30.11cd-12);610 purgation by means of arkakṣīra in alarkaviṣa (A.s.U. $46.67 = A.h.U.38.36ab).^{611}$

The features shared by Samgraha and Hrdaya point to a common basis for both works. Whether or not the Samgraha as now known should be regarded as the earlier treatise will be discussed later.

The hypothesis of one single Vāgbhata

Some Indian scholars protest against the view that the names Vrddhavāgbhata and Vā-gbhata, often employed by commentators in references to and quotations from the Samgraha and Hrdaya respectively, indicate two authors, who, moreover, may differ in age.

The names Vrddhavāgbhaṭa and Vāgbhaṭa do not point to different persons in their opinion, but, instead, to two different works only, a larger and a smaller version of one basic text, which have been composed by one and the same person. 612

G. Hāldār (Vrddhatrayī 280–282) was of the opinion that Vāgbhaṭa wrote the *Hrdaya* after the *Samgraha* in order to deal with the same subjects in a more intelligible and accessible way (sugamataratva). He refers to Nāgeśabhaṭṭa as an author wo did the same, by composing his *Laghumañ jūṣā* after having written the *Brhatsiddhāntamañ jūṣā*. The appellation Vrddhavāgbhaṭa for the *Samgraha* or its author does not indicate at all, in his view, that an older and distinct person is meant.

Yādavaśarman said that Vāgbhaṭa culled his material from Caraka and Suśruta without changing it in composing the *Saṃgraha*, while he transformed it by introducing many changes in the *Hṛdaya*.613 This view does not agree with the facts at all

H. Parāḍkar⁶¹⁴ supposes that Vāgbhaṭa, being afraid that his large and difficult Samgraha would fall into oblivion, decided to write a smaller treatise, easier to understand. In support of this idea, he refers to a verse (A.h. U.39.148), where diseases of old age, to be treated successfully by a particular drug, are compared to voluminous books which have not been studied properly. Assuming that Parāḍkar regards this as a taunt directed at the Samgraha, the guess that it derives from a different author would be as justifiable in my opinion.

A scholar who defended that both Samgraha and Hrdaya were written by one author, but clearly acknowledging the differences between these works, was Nandkiśor Śarmā; he explained the differences by suggesting that Vāgbhaṭa's views had changed in the course of time under the influence of changes in the society in which he lived. 615

Atrideva⁶¹⁶ suggested that the differences in style of the *Hṛdaya* and its new prescriptions, etc., are due to the fully developed maturity and the experience of Vāgbhaṭa when he wrote that work.

A combination of both styles of reasoning has been developed by K.R. Srikantha Murthy. 617 Two entirely different lines of thought are discernible in his argumentation. (1) There was a lack of attention from the side of the author when he prepared the Sangraha; being wholly intent on the collection of material from a large number of texts, he did not pay much heed to their evaluation; after completing the Sangraha, Vāgbhaṭa noticed many inaccuracies and blemishes, and felt the need to set them right in the Hrdaya. (2) Changes in the social, religious and political conditions which took place quickly after the disappearance of the Gupta empire had their effect on literary works, including medical treatises.

Those advocating that Samgraha and Hrdaya were written by one and the same Vāgbhaṭa muster, in general, vague or otherwise weak, untenable or wrong arguments, such as the similarity in language and style, ⁶¹⁸ the same method of presentation, ⁶¹⁹ the complete absence of divergences in opinion ⁶²⁰ or the paucity of these differences, ⁶²¹ the presence of elements of Buddhist origin in both works, ⁶²² the same parentage of the authors, ⁶²³ the statement at the end of the Hrdaya that may refer to the Samgraha, ⁶²⁴ and the conviction about the identity expressed by many commentators. ⁶²⁵

All these scholars assume the existence of one single Vagbhata and the anteriority

of the Samgraha. None of them makes explicit which changes, social, religious, economic or political, are reflected in the two works when compared with each other. Nor do we find examples attesting that the *Hṛdaya* was written by a more mature and experienced mind. Inaccuracies and blemishes of the Samgraha have not been collected and discussed.

The similarity in language and style of Samgraha and Hrdaya, used as an argument in support of one author, is, partially at least, certainly present, but cannot be regarded as decisive. One of the two has extensively borrowed from the other, but this need not mean at all that they were composed by one author.

The method of presentation is difficult to define, unless it means that both works present their teachings as delivered by the same group of sages.

The absence or paucity of divergences in opinion is entirely wrong as an argument, as will be clear to anyone who has studied both works.

Buddhist elements are present in both works, which can partly be explained as evidence of borrowing. In general, the *Samgraha* has more of these elements, but, on the other hand, the *Hrdaya* adds some.

The same parentage of the authors is found in the colophons only, which does not constitute a valid argument. A verse towards the end of the *Hrdaya* (U.40.83) does not give Vāgbhaṭa's genealogy, nor his own name. Nandkiśor Śarmā tried to reason this difficulty away by stating that it was not necessary at all for the author to repeat this information, already present in the *Samgraha*. 626

Some verses at the end of the *Hrdaya* are thought to prove that it was written by the author of the *Sangraha* after completion of the latter work, 627 but these stanzas do not convincingly indicate that one and the same author wrote both works.

Dates assigned to one single Vāgbhaṭa

Dates assigned to one single Vāgbhaṭa are: 3000 B.C.; ⁶²⁸ first or second century B.C.; ⁶²⁹ 200 B.C.; ⁶³⁰ about the second century B.C.; ⁶³¹ second century A.D.; ⁶³² the end of the second to the beginning of the third century A.D.; ⁶³³ not later than the fourth century; ⁶³⁴ the fourth century; ⁶³⁵ the second half of the fourth century; ⁶³⁶ the fourth or the fifth century at the latest or even earlier; ⁶³⁷ the end of the fourth or the beginning of the fifth century; ⁶³⁸ the beginning of the fifth century; ⁶³⁹ the fifth century; ⁶⁴⁰ A.D. 420–525; ⁶⁴¹ the sixth century; ⁶⁴² A.D. 550–600; ⁶⁴³ the seventh century at the latest, probably earlier; ⁶⁴⁴ the seventh century or a little earlier; ⁶⁴⁵ about the seventh century; ⁶⁴⁶ the seventh century; ⁶⁴⁷ the middle of the seventh century; ⁶⁴⁸ the eighth century; ⁶⁴⁹ about A.D. 850; ⁶⁵⁰ the ninth century; ⁶⁵¹ during the reign of Jayasinha, in the middle of the twelfth century; ⁶⁵²

The hypothesis of two Vāgbhatas

Several arguments have been adduced in support of the thesis that two Vāgbhatas have to be distinguished. It will be useful to survey the most important ones.

The unreliability of the colophons of the *Hrdaya* makes them unsuitable to prove

that it was written by the same author as the Samgraha. 653 This argument is to be accepted.

The absence of the name of the author in the *Hrdaya* is regarded as pointing to an author who is not the same as the one who composed the *Samgraha*. ⁶⁵⁴ This argument, rather often waved aside by unconvincing lines of reasoning, is, in my view, reasonable and should be considered seriously.

The references to and quotations from Vrddhavāgbhaṭa and Vāgbhaṭa are thought to demonstrate that two different authors are meant. ⁶⁵⁵ The distinction of a Vrddhavāgbhaṭa, next to a Vāgbhaṭa, adopted by a number of commentators, does not prove in itself that two different authors are meant. Earlier commentators usually assume that the authors of Samgraha and Hrdaya are identical. ⁶⁵⁶

The differences in style, namely that the *Sangraha* is in prose and verse, while the *Hrdaya* is exclusively in verse, are considered to support the hypothesis of two authors. ⁶⁵⁷ This argument certainly has some weight, but can hardly be decisive.

The author of the *Hṛdaya* is seen as more skilled in writing verse than the author of the *Saṇṇgraha*. ⁶⁵⁸ This argument loses its force when closer study reveals that the verses found in the *Saṇṇgraha* are not less skilled than those of the *Hṛdaya*, only less in number.

The paucity of Buddhist features in the *Hrdaya* is invoked as proving that a different author has been at work. Those features which are still present are interpreted as resulting from the fact that the *Samgraha* was the basis for the composition of the *Hrdaya*, of Though the Buddhist features are generally less in number in the *Hrdaya*, which may be regarded as supporting the argument, the same work also adds some which are absent from the *Samgraha*, which weakens it.

The *Hṛdaya* is said to show more respect for the Hindu dharma than the *Samgraha*. ⁶⁶⁰ As long as no serious comparative study of both works with its focus on this aspect has been made, the claim must be regarded as unfounded.

One of the few Indian scholars who studied part of the differences between Samgraha and Hṛdaya more accurately and reliably in order two establish that two Vāgbhaṭas have to be distinguished was Jyotiṣacandra Sarasvatī. This author examined a number of passages from the Śārīrasthānas of Samgraha and Hṛdaya.

The age a male should have in order to beget a healthy child is twenty-five in the Samgraha (Śā.1.3), twenty in the Hṛdaya (Śā.1.8-9a). The female should be sixteen years of age. The Hṛdaya is, as a text more in agreement with orthodox views, regarded as later than the Samgraha. This difference between the two texts has also been discussed by Hilgenberg and Kirfel, as well as by H. Parādkar, who are not led by it to assume two different authors. 661 The Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha is sometimes (see, for example, Śā.3.37) in agreement with the Carakasaṃhitā (compare Ca.Śā.8.48), whereas the corresponding verse of the Hṛdaya (Śā.3.194) agrees with the Suśrutasaṃhitā (compare Su.Śā.10.16-17). The Hṛdaya (Śā.3.12) mentions the dimbha as one of the viscera (koṣṭhāṅga), whereas the Saṃgraha (Śā.5.28) does not employ this anatomical term in the corresponding passage. The Saṃgraha (Śā.5.48) accepts a number of 2,000 sandhis; the Hṛdaya (Śā.3.16cd-17ab) states that their number is 210 according to Dhanvantari, but 2,000 according to Atrinandana (i.e., the Āṭreya Punar-

vasu of the Carakasamhitā). The system of sirās shows some differences (compare A.s.Śā.6.8 and A.h.Śā.3.38b). The nature of the transforming fire is discussed in both texts (A.s.Śā.6.23; A.h.Śā.3.49); two disagreeing opinions are referred to; the second opinion, ascribed to Atreva in the Hrdaya, appears to be rejected in the Samgraha. The Samgraha (Śā.7.14) acknowledges eleven māmsamarmans, forty-one sirāmarmans, twenty-seven snāvamarmans, eight asthimarmans, twenty sandhimarmans; the Hrdaya (\$\bar{a}.4.40-44), on the other hand, acknowledges ten mamsamarmans, thirty-seven sirāmarmans, nine dhamanīmarnans, twenty-three snāvamarnans, eight asthimarmans, twenty sandhimarmans. The Samgraha (Śā.7.13-14) distinguishes five types of marman, the *Hrdaya* (Sā.4.39) adds a sixth type, connected with the dhamanīs; ⁶⁶² the Hrdaya (Śā.4.45cd-46) adds that others do not acknowledge this extra group, consisting of the guda (a māmsamarman in the Samgraha), the two apastambhas (sirāmarmans in the Samgraha), the two vidhuras (snāvamarmans in the Samgraha), and the four śrngātakas (sirāmarmans in the Samgraha) (A.h.Śā.4.42a-c); accordingly, the Samgraha (Śā.7.10) refers to the śrngātaka as a sirāmarman in another passage; the corresponding verse of the *Hrdaya* (Sā.4.34) does not mention the type of marman involved. The Samgraha (Ka.8.27) requires the quantity of fresh, moist drugs and of liquids to be double the quantity of dried drugs; the Hrdaya (Ka.6.23ab) says the same, but specifies that the rule for liquids applies only to quantities of a kudaya and more; the Samgraha follows Caraka (Ka.12.98cd) and Suśruta (Ci.31.7), whereas the Hrdaya adheres to the rule of Jatūkarna and that of another unnamed authority, both quoted by Cakrapānidatta. 663

A few examples of differences between Saṃgraha and Hṛdaya not discussed by Jyotişacandra Sarasvatī may be useful.

The Samgraha stresses the role of the woman in determining desirable characteristics of the child to be born and agrees with Caraka, whereas the *Hrdaya* is in conformity with Susruta in giving this power to both parents.⁶⁶⁴

The Samgraha says that the longings of pregnancy arise in the third month; it adds that according to a disagreeing view they become manifest after six weeks and continue until the fifth month (Śā.2.10-11). ⁶⁶⁵ The *Hṛdaya* states that the longings begin in the second month (Śā.1.52). The Samgraha is in conformity with the Carakasanhitā which opts for the third month (Śā.4.15); the Suśrutasanhitā declares that the longings become manifest in the fourth month.

The Sangraha states that the skin consists of six layers (\$\bar{a}\$.5.16-17), which agrees with Caraka. The diverging theory of Suśruta who distinguishes seven layers is expounded next (\$\bar{a}\$.5.18), without referring to him by name and without taking sides. On the other hand, the *Hrdaya* acknowledges the seven layers of Suśruta (\$\bar{a}\$.3.8d).

The Samgraha regards ojas as the essence (sāra) of śukra, which, due to its very pure nature, has no waste product (mala) resulting from this transformation; other authorities declare that ojas is not subject to pāka; others again state that the embryo (garbha) constitutes the essence of śukra (Śā.6.29). The Hrdaya, on the other hand, adopts the theory that the embryo arises from śukra and does not mention ojas in the same context (Śā.3.63ab).

Some more differences noticed by Jyotisacandra Sarasvatī have to be discussed too.

The author of the Samgraha is said to make more changes in the text of the Carakasamhitā and Suśrutasamhitā than the author of the Hrdaya ⁶⁶⁶ Nādīsveda is absent in the Hrdaya, while the Samgraha (U.22.3, 13, 20) mentions it. The Hrdaya omits many kalpas of the Samgraha and explicitly mentions this fact (A.h.U.39.177). The palāndukalpa, for example, which refers to the Śakas, is absent.

The Saṃgraha presents itself as entirely based on the accepted tradition.⁶⁶⁷ The Hrdaya, in contrast to this, regards style (subhāṣitatva) as more important than the authority of ancient sages (muniprantatva) (U.40.88). This argument cannot be accepted as conclusive, because the author of the Hrdaya also declares that his work follows the teachings of the great sages (mahāmunimatānuga), who possess a wide knowledge without blemishes (vipulāmalavijāāna) (U.40.79).

The expression sangrahabodhaśakta, found towards the end of the *Hrdaya* (U.40. 83), and sometimes thought to refer to the *Sangraha*, ⁶⁶⁸ cannot do so actually, because of the differences in opinion between the two works. Jyotiṣacandra Sarasvatī's reason to wave this verse aside is open to discussion. However, the stanza is unconvincing for other reasons when regarded as hinting at the *Sangraha*. It says that a physician able to study and grasp the contents of the summary (sangrahabodhaśakta) (of medical science represented by the *Hrdaya*) will be able to make totter (ākampayati) colleagues who practice according to other large treatises (anyaviśālatantrakrtābhiyoga).

Jyotişacandra Sarasvatī is convinced that a verse towards the end of the *Hṛdaya* (U. 40.80), where, according to many scholars, ⁶⁶⁹ the *Saṃgraha* is mentioned as the work on which the *Hṛdaya* is based, proves that it derives from a different author. This verse says that the *Hṛdaya* has arisen, as a quite separate treatise (pṛthag eva tantram), from the great mass of amṛta constituted by the *Aṣṭāṇgasaṃgraḥa*, or, alternatively, by the summary of the eight branches (of the medical science) (aṣṭāṇgasaṃgraḥamanhamnṭrarā-śi), which, in its turn, resulted from the churning of the ocean of the eightfold medical science (aṣṭāṇgasaṇgraḥa. If it does, the *Hṛdaya* is later and may be by an author distinct from the one who composed the *Saṃgraḥa*.

The features highlighted so far show that Samgraha and Hrdaya can hardly be imagined to be works of one and the same author.

Special features of the Samgraha 670

The number of chapters is one hundred, without considering the fifty chapters of the Uttarasthāna. The addition of three characteristics (lakṣaṇa) of a season: māsa, rāśi and svarūpa (A.s.Sū.4.63cd). Rules for drinking water (A.s.Sū.6.27cd–28, 32–33, 35, 38–39, 43). Rules for drinking water (A.s.Sū.6.27cd–28, 32–33, 35, 38–39, 43). The properties and actions of milk, as dependent on the food, etc., of the animal yielding it (A.s.Sū.6.60–61). The Additional types of sugar, made from the leaves of kāśa, iṣu (= śara) and darbha (A.s.Sū.6.84cd). The properties and actions of the dung of various animals (A.s.Sū.6.13cd–141). The properties and actions of the dung of various animals (A.s.Sū.6.13cd–141). The properties and actions are dakalāvaṇika, The properties and actions of the dung of various animals (A.s.Sū.6.13cd–141). The properties and actions of the dung of various animals (A.s.Sū.6.13cd–141). The properties and actions of the dung of various substance acts like amṛta (A.s.Sū.7.211cd).

substances which cause or cure particular disorders have an opposite effect in combination with other drugs (A.s.Sū.7.215).⁶⁸⁴ Examples of changes in the properties of medicinal substances, dependent on their way of preparation (A.s.Sū.7.219-222, 225) and application (A.s.Sū.6.227).⁶⁸⁵ The vessel in which a drug is kept influences its properties (A.s.Sū.6.226cd). 686 Exceptions to general rules regarding the treatment of particular disorders (A.s.Sū.6.246ab, 249ab, 250ab). 687 The description of sarvārthasiddhāñ jana (A.s.Sū.8.58-59), 688 Foods are digested within four, drugs within two yāma in someone with a balanced digestive fire (samāgni) (A.s.Sū.11.37). 689 Seven pañcamula groups are distinguished; 600 the vallī- and kantakapañcamula groups (A.s. Sū.12.54cd-55ab), borrowed from Suśruta, ⁶⁹¹ are absent from the *Hrdaya*. The best hingu is said to come from the country called Boskana (A.s.Sū.12.58cd-59). 692 The group of three balas is mentioned (A.s.Sū.12.75ab). 693 The chapter on the best (agrya) remedial measures and drugs among particular groups with a specific action, 694 largely borrowed from Caraka, enumerates a number of new items: tinduka as the best annadravyārucikara drug; 695 vrsa against raktapitta, kantakārikā against kāsa, lāksā against sadyalıksata, nāgabalā against ksataksaya, aruskara (= bhallātaka) and citraka against śuskārśas, kutaja against raktārśas, lājā against chardi, haridrā against prameha, erandataila against vardhma, gulma and vātašūla, lašuna against gulma and among vātahara drugs, ayorajas against pānduroga, guggulu against medoroga and among vātahara drugs, triphalā against timira (A.s.Sū.13.2); several items of Caraka's list are omitted in the Samgraha and the order of the items differs at many places, ⁶⁹⁶ The list of drugs which are useful in emetic procedures (A.s.Sū.14.2), absent from the Hrdaya, is much longer than the corresponding ones of Caraka ((Sū.2.7-8 and 4.13) and Suśruta (Sū.39.3). New groups of drugs are those called prāyogika-, snaihika- and tīksnadhūmopayogin (A.s.Sū.14.6). New items are the ānūpa- and jāngalasādhārana types of country (Sū.18.29). 697 A new relationship between the dhātus and malas with regard to the dosas; ⁶⁹⁸ vāta is said to stay in the bones, pitta in blood and sweat, kapha in the remaining dhātus (A.s.Sū.19.8); accordingly, increase of rasa is accompanied by kapha disorders and increase of blood by pitta disorders, but increase of muscular tissue by disorders caused by kapha and blood, and increase of fatty tissue by disorders caused by kapha, blood and muscular tissue, which disagrees (A.s.Sū.19.4). An elaborate classification of diseases is present (A.s.Sū.22).⁶⁹⁹ The roles of perception (pratyaksa) and inference (anumāna) in the examination of a patient are elaborately discussed (A.s.Sū.22.11).700 The number of yantras is said to be indeterminable (A.s.Sū.34.2); the divergent opinion that their number is 101 (Sū.34.3), which is found in the Suśrutasamhitā (Sū.7.3), is obviously rejected. 701 Three types of arśoyantra are described (A.s.Sū.34.10); additional yantras are the yonivranadarśanayantra (34.12), nādīvranapraksālanavantra (34.12) and abhyanjanavantra (34.12). 702 Sastrakarman is of twelve kinds (A.s.Sū.34.22), while it is of eight kinds in Suśruta (Sū.8.4); added are: pātana, pracchāna, kuttana and mathana. Sūrvakānta and samudraphena are added to the anusastras (A.s.Sū.34.31). 703 Dissection, absent from the Hrdaya, is described in the chapter on surgical instruments (A.s.Sū.34.38), not in the Śārīrasthāna, as in the Susrutasamhitā. 704 New fevers described are those called hāridraka, rātrika and pūrvarātrika (A.s.Ni.2.97cd-100ab). 705

New prescriptions are: parpaṭa in pittajvara (A.s.Ci.1.75); ⁷⁰⁶ ground (ślakṣṇapiṣṭa) kaṭukā with sugar (A.s.Ci.1.76cd); ⁷⁰⁷ the svarasa of the flowers and leaves of vṛṣa, together with sugar and honey, in a fever by pitta and kapha (A.s.Ci.1.92cd); ⁷⁰⁸ the preparation called candrakānta, to be employed in rājayakṣman (A.s.Ci.7.13–15ab); ⁷⁰⁹ bilvataila (A.s.U.22.30) in ear diseases; ⁷¹⁰ khadirādiguṭikā in all mukharogas (A.s.U. 26.54); ⁷¹¹ madayantikā leaves in mukhapāka due to pitta (A.s.U.26.57); ⁷¹² the roots of nala ground in water, employed as a pāna or a lepa in cases of alarkaviṣa (A.s.U.46.66); ⁷¹³ chewed leaves of mātuluṅga, tied to the wound, in alarkaviṣa (A.s.U.46.66); ⁷¹⁴ fruits of dhattūra, roots of dhattūra and kākodumbarikā, together with sīdhu or taṇḍulāmbu, in alarkaviṣa (A.s.U.46.69); crushed leaves, bark and roots of jalavetasa, boiled in water, in alarkaviṣa (A.s.U.46.72). ⁷¹⁶

The requirements for a suitable playground for children (krīdābhūmi) are enumerated (A.s.U.1.75-76). 717 A ritual (sasthīpūjā) to be performed in the sixth night after birth is described (A.s.U.1.28). 718 A number of alternatives are given for the date of the name-giving ceremony (nāmakarana) (A.s.U.1.29-30). Methods are described which are helpful in weaning (A.s.U.1.67). The eating of earth by children is mentioned and the disorders arising from this habit are enumerated (A.s.U.1.101cd-102).⁷¹⁹ New children's diseases described are pārigarbhika and parvānuplava (A.s.U.2.97-114). 720 The formula of śairīsataila (A.s.U.10.27-37) is new. The exposition on agadatantra covers many chapters (A.s.U.40-48); 721 the visopayogīya chapter (A.s.U.48) is new.⁷²² The symptoms of poisoning by haritala (A.s.U.40.141)⁷²³ and by dhattura are described (A.s.U.40.144: ghurghūraka). 724 Many new kalpas are present in the rasāyana chapter (A.s.U.49).⁷²⁵ The Samgraha may be the first medical treatise to extend the use of musk. 726 Excessive use of a guggulu rasāyana is said to cause klībatā (A.s.U.49.280). 727 The formula of śivā gutikā (A.s.U.49.309–325) is new. 728 Pādalepa is described in the vajīkarana chapter (A.s.U.50.106). 729 Thirty-six tantrayuktis are mentioned (A.s.U.50.148-153). 730

Unusual names of plants are: ahicchattra ((U.40.70), ⁷³¹ ajahā ((A.s.U.50.91), ⁷³² ajjhaṭā (A.s.Ci.2.16), ⁷³³ ākhuvṛkṣa (U.46.42), ⁷³⁴ āryabṛhaṭī (A.s.U.40.93), ⁷³⁵ avyaṇḍā (A.s.U.1.99), ⁷³⁶ bhañjī (Sū.8.20), ⁷³⁷ bhogavatī (A.s.U.40.88), ⁷³⁸ dadhi (U.8.23), ⁷³⁹ gālā (A.s.U.1.8), ⁷⁴⁰ ikṣupālikā (A.s.Ka.4.32), ⁷⁴¹ jharasī (A.s.Ci.17.29), ⁷⁴² kolaṅkataka (A.s.Ka.4.32), ⁷⁴³ mahālāṅgalakī (A.s.U.28.31), ⁷⁴⁴ maḥṣākrāntā (U.44.44 and 46), ⁷⁴⁵ maṇḍalapaṃikā (U.44.48), ⁷⁴⁶ maṇḍarī (A.s.U.28.31), ⁷⁵⁰ rāmataruṇī (A.s.U.28.47), ⁷⁵¹ siṃhalomī (A.s.U.40.72), ⁷⁵² siṃhapucchī (U.44.48), ⁷⁵³ siṃhaskandī (A.s.U.2.76), ⁷⁵⁵ sphūṛjāta (A.s.Ci.1.78), ⁷⁵⁶ sphūrjātaka (A.s.U.2.71), ⁷⁵⁷ spṛṣṭarodikā (A.s.U.2.51), ⁷⁵⁸ surālā (A.s.U.40.88), ⁷⁵⁹ suvahā (U.44.43), ⁷⁶⁰ śvetapiṇḍā (U.43.56), ⁷⁶¹ vāruṇapuṣpā (U.45.17), ⁷⁶² vāruṇī (U.45.35), ⁷⁶³ and vetālī (A.s.U.40.176), ⁷⁶⁴

Special features of the Hrdaya

The number of chapters is 120, in agreement with that of other samhitās. ⁷⁶⁵ Residence in heated rooms (angāratāpasamtaptagarbhabhūveśmacarana) is recommended in

winter (A.h.Sū.3.16); new material is found in the descriptions of summer and autumn (A.h.Sū.3).766 Noteworthy quotations from the Carakasamhitā are present in A.h.Sū.4.767 Many fluid substances of the Samgraha are absent in the chapter (A.h.Sū.6) dealing with them. ⁷⁶⁸ New substances in the dravyaprakarana are ārdrikā (A.h.Sū.6.109ab) and grījanaka (A.h.Sū.6.113ab). 769 Uddāla(ka) (A.s.Sū.7.13, 17), madhūlikā (A.s.Sū.7.14, 17), kuśāmraśimbī (A.s.Sū.7.31),⁷⁷⁰ makustha(ka) (A.s.Sū.7.22, 25), and masūra (A.s.Sū.7.22, 25) are absent; the same applies to rāgasādava (A.s.Sū.7.53), mantha (A.s.Sū.7.54), śaskulī (A.s.Sū.7.60), modaka (A.s. Sū.7.60), saktubho janavidhi (A.s.Sū.7.60ab), karkandhubadarādisaktu (A.s.Sū.7.62), ghārikā (A.s.U.49.220), and indarikā (A.s.U.49.220) among the prepared dishes; the properties of the flesh of hamsa (A.s.Sū.7.98ab) and kulīra (A.s.Sū.7.100cd) are absent; the syamadigana (A.s.Sū.7.122-123) is absent from the sakavarga, etc. (A.h.Sū.6.).⁷⁷¹ The two pañcamūla groups called vallī- and kantakapañcamūla (A.s. Sū.12.54cd-55) are absent. 772 The uses of bisa, iksu, moca, coca, āmra, modaka, utkārikā, etc., are described (A.h.Sū.8.45). 773 A smaller number of anupānas are described (A.h.Sū.8.47cd-52) than in the Samgraha (Sū.10.11).⁷⁷⁴ The definition of vipāka (A.h.Sū.9.20) is remarkable.⁷⁷⁵ Specific actions (visistakarman) of the dhātus and malas are described (A.h.Sū.11). 776 Blood is not regarded as a dosa. 777 Seven sadyalisnehana substances are mentioned (A.h.Sū.16.40cd-42), which are absent from the Samgraha. 778 Four types of sveda are distinguished (A.h.Sū.17.1). 779 Substances suitable to be smoked are mentioned (A.h.Sū, 21, 13-18), 780 The types of añ iana are three instead of four in number (A.h.Sū.23.10). 781 The chapter on blunt instruments mentions a śalyanirghātinī nādī (A.h.Sū.25.15cd-16ab) and an aśmaryāharanayantra (A.h.Sū.25.33ab).⁷⁸² Five instead of three types of śalyagati are distinguished (A.h.Sū.28.1). 783 Dissection is absent. 784 The description of the ojas problem in the eighth month of pregnancy (A.h.Śā.1.62cd-63) differs from that in the Samgraha.⁷⁸⁵ A metal figure of a male is described, to be heated and put into milk, which, afterwards, should be drunk by a pregnant woman with a view to increase the chance that a son will be born (A.h.Śā.1.38cd-39ab). 786 Two types of mūdhagarbha, called viskambha, require surgical intervention (A.h.Śā.2.29-31ab). 787 A dhamanīstha type of marman is acknowledged (A.h.Śā.4). 788 The śalākābhramanadosas (A.h.U.17.24) are new. The undesirable effects of couching (A.h.U.17.25-27) are new. New recipes are: sūranaputapāka against arśas (A.h.Ci.8.156), 789 dādimāstakacūrna against atīsāra (A.h.Ci.9.113cd-115), ⁷⁹⁰ ayaskrti against prameha (A.h.Ci.12.29-32), ⁷⁹¹ a rāgasādava with kapittha, jambū and tinduka against prameha (A.h.Ci.12.12cd), 792 ayaskrti against udara (A.h.Ci.15.74),⁷⁹³ lauhacūrna steeped in cow's urine against pāṇḍuroga, 794 maṇḍūravaṭaka against pāṇḍuroga (A.h.Ci.16.). 795 The dosages of medicines (ausadhamātrā) are discussed (A.h.Ka.6.11cd-14).⁷⁹⁶ New prescriptions against timira are collyria containing sulphur and mercury (A.h.U.13.31cd-33ab and 36). 797 Many inorganic substances are employed against eye diseases. 798 Treatment by means of a tailadron is described as suitable to patients with sadyovrana (A.h.U. 26.57-58).⁷⁹⁹ The śantikarman called candrodaya is described (A.h.U.35.24-32); 800 this ritual employs a mantra addressed to Purusasimha and Nārāvana. 801 Treatment of a snake-bite by means of sucking through a horn is described (A.h.U.36.50cd). 802

The chapter on rasāyana describes the uses of gokṣura (A.h.U.39.56–57), vārāhīkanda (A.h.U.39.58–59), śunṭhī, and citraka (A.h.U.39.62–65). 803 The vājīkaraṇa chapter prescribes uccaṭā (A.h.U.40.32). 804 The list of best drugs against particular disorders mentions: mustā and parpaṭaka against fever, lājā against chardi, girija (= śilājatu) against bastiroga, dhātrī (= āmalakī) against meha, abhayā (= harītakī) against disorders caused by vāta and kapha, pippalī against plīhāmaya (A.h.U.40.48), tārkṣya (= rasāñjana) against sthaulya, gudūcī against vātarakta (A.h.U.40.50). 805

Names of vegetable drugs absent from Carakasamhitā and Suśrutasamhitā are: 806 adrikarnī (A.h.U.5.20),807 ahikeśara (A.h.Ci.7.106),808 ahimāra (A.h.U.22.82, 88),809 ahimāraka (A.h.U.22.107),810 aileya (A.h.U.11.24),811 aileyaka (A.h.U.16.24),812 ākhukarnī (A.h.Ci.20.29), 813 aksibhaisa jya (A.h.Ci.9.23), 814 amarā (A.h.U.5.20), 815 amarataru (A.h.U.24.29),816 amla (A.h.Ci.1.134),817 amlavidula (A.h.Ci.8.149),818 anuyava (A.h.Sū.6.15), 819 aranika (A.h.Sū.15.24; Ci.14.117), 820 āranyakulattha (A.h.U.16.6), 821 ārdrikā (A.h.Sū.6.109; Ci.7.15; 8.82), 822 asita jīraka (A.h.Ci.14.17), asitasaroja (A.h.Ci.7.85),823 aśvaghna (A.h.Ci.8.23; U.18.57; 24.24),824 ausadha (A.h. Ci.5.55; 6.33; 10.70), 825 āvartakī (A.h.Ci.19.22), 826 bahalapallava (A.h.Sū.15.21), 827 bahurasa (A.h.Sū.15.45), 828 bālapattra (A.h.U.39.105), 829 barbara (A.h.U.3.59), 830 barhiśikhā (A.h.Ci.11.34), 831 bāspikā (A.h.Sū.7.25; Ci.4.32), 832 bastāntrī (A.h. Sū.15.45),833 bhadrailā (A.h.U.6.26),834 bhūkadamba (A.h.Ci.12.20; U.22.22),835 bījāhva (A.h.Ci.6.33 and 34),836 botasthavira (A.h.Ci.3.135),837 brahmasomā (A.h. U.1.44),838 candralekhā (A.h.Ci.3.135),839 candraśakalā (A.h.Ci.19.44),840 capalā (A.h.Ci.4.24; 8.149; Ka.4.64; U.16.40),841 cetakī (A.h.U.30.39),842 chāgakarņa (A.h.Sū.15.19), 843 chinnodbhavā (A.h.Ci.1.60), 844 cīnāka (A.h.Sū.6.87), 845 dahana (A.h.Sū.15.1 and 21; Ci.8.154),846 devadhūpa (A.h.Sū.15.43; U.22.3),847 devāhva (A.h.Sū.15.35; Ci.1.62; 12.2; Ka.5.19; U.2.25; 3.56), 848 devāhvaya (A.h.Sū.15.9), 849 dhānakā (A.h.Sū.15.16; Ci.8.73; 9.104; 17.11),850 dhanikā (A.h.Ci.8.50, 77, 82; 9.26), 851 dhattūra (A.h.U.24.30; 38.37), dronā (A.h.U.36.92), 852 dugdhinīkā (A.h. U.37.86), 853 dvīpi (A.h.Sū.15.32; Ci.14.82; 19.41 and 45; 20.16; 21.57; U.22.56 and 81; 30.27), 854 gada (A.h.U.5.20; 20.15), 855 gadā (A.h.U.32.31), 856 ga jacirbhata (A.h.Ci.14.38),857 gajadantikā (A.h.U.36.61),858 gajakanā (A.h.Ci.8.50),859 gajakṛṣṇā (A.h.U.22.66), 860 gajopakulyā (A.h.Ci.21.59), 861 gāla (A.h.Ci.6; 20.20), 862 gandhapalāśa (A.h.Ci.10.46; 14.14; 17.24), 863 gāngeyī (A.h.Ci.1.54; Ka.4.44), 864 gataśoka (A.h.Sū.15.26), 865 ghosā (A.h.U.13.55; 16.7), 866 ghunapriyā (A.h.Sū.15.33; Ci.9.57; 16.11), 867 ghunavallabhā (A.h.Ci.8.103 and 151), 868 ghunestā (A.h.Ci.19. 40), 869 gokantaka (A.h.Sū.15.24; Ci.1.114; 2.38; 8.12), 870 gopakanyā (A.h.Ci.2.28; U.37.82),871 gopānganā (A.h.Ka.4.12),872 gopasutā (A.h.Sū.15.9),873 gudamañjarī (A.h.U.40.52), 874 guntha (A.h.Sū.15.24; Ci.11.19 and 22), 875 halinī (A.h.Ci.8.22), 876 ibhapippalī (A.h.Ci.14.18), 877 indulekhā (A.h.U.1.43), 878 indurājī (A.h.Ci.19.26), indurā jikā (A.h.Ci.20.6).879 jalada (A.h.Sū.3.23; 15.35; 20.37; Ci.2.18 and 31).880 jantughna (A.h.Ci.3.10; 4.29; 19.47 and 79; U.22.63), 881 jantuhrt (A.h.Ci.8, first additional verse after 15),882 jātipattrikā (A.h.U.22.93),883 jātīrasa (A.h.Sū.15. 43), 884 jayantī (A.h.Ci.17.26), 885 jhuñ jhu (A.h.Sū.6.94), 886 jīvanta (A.h.Sū.6.94), 887 iyotis (A.h.Ci.8.34),888 kacchaka (A.h.Ci.11.18),889 kākatiktā (A.h.Sū.15.17),890 kākamālikā (A.h.U.35.25.), 891 kākāndakī (A.h.U.24.35), 892 kālamuskaka (A.h.Sū.

30.8), 893 kali (A.h.Ci.18.25; U.28.38), 894 kālinga (A.h.Sū.6.87 and 89), 895 kalodya (A.h.Sū.6.92), 896 kāmāttā (A.h.Sū.7.36), 897 kanādvaya (A.h.Ci.19.8), 898 kanāmūla (A.h.U.37.83), 899 kandūkarī (A.h.Sū.15.9), 900 kāntā (A.h.Śā.2.4; U.22.12, 86), 901 kārmukā (A.h.Sū.15.30),902 kāsaghna (A.h.Ci.3.23 and 49; 4.20),903 kāśmīraja (A.h.U.37.44),904 kattrna (A.h.U.3.45),905 katu (A.h.U.5.20),906 katukadaugdhika (A.h.U.37.79), 907 katukāphala (A.h.Sū.29.35), 908 khapura (A.h.Sū.15.43; U.40.52), 909 kharabusa (A.h.Sū.15.30),910 kolī (A.h.Sū.15.41),911 kopanā (A.h.Ci.21.68),912 koranta (A.h.U.24.35), 913 krsnapātalī (U.5.42), 914 ksaudrasāhvayā (A.h.U.35.21), 915 ksīrī (A.h.Ci.5.33), 916 ksīripādapa (A.h.U.3.46), 917 ksudrā (A.h.U.22.97), 918 ksudravārtāka (A.h.U.24.30), 919 ksuraka (A.h.Ci.15.95), 920 kumbha (A.h.Sū.15.2; Ci.8.151; 13.6; 14.18 and 36; 15.10 and 105; 16.43; 17.3; 19.19 and 31; Ka.2.48; U.7.21; 13.69; 20.24; 28.34). 921 kumbhayoni (A.h.U.13.90), 922 kusumāndaka (A.h.Sū.6. 2), 923 kutila (A.h.U.24.8), 924 kutilī (A.h.Sū.6.76), 925 kutiñjara (A.h.Sū.6.93), 926 kutsitāmba (A.h.Sū.15.26), 927 laghupattrā cillī (A.h.Sū.6.96), 928 latvā (A.h.Ci.11. 7; U.22.65), 929 latvāka (A.h.Sū.6.93); 930 madā (A.h.Ci.8.149), 931 madanīyahetu (A.h.Sū.15.37),932 mādhavī (A.h.Sū.3.34),933 madhuphalā (A.h.Ci.8.149),934 madhusrava (A.h.Sū.15.15), 935 mādrī (A.h.Ci.6.52; 8.149; 9.7; 10.53; 12.18; 15.71; 17.26; U.2.24; 20.15), 936 mahādronā (A.h.U.36.92), 937 mahadvyāghrī (A.h.Sū.10. 30),⁹³⁸ mahāpicumanda (A.h.Ci.8.161),⁹³⁹ mahiṣākṣa (A.h.U.28.42),⁹⁴⁰ mānadruma (A.h.Sū.15.37), 941 mānasī (A.h.U.36.92), 942 mārsa (A.h.Sū.6.93), 943 mesavisānī (A.h.U.14.31), 944 muśalī (A.h.U.32.21), 945 nāgāhva (Sū.15.14; Ka.4.14), 946 nāgāhvaya (Sū.15.43), 947 nāgakusuma (A.h.Ci.5.54), 948 nāgapurīṣacchattra (A.h.U.37.42), 949 nahikā (A.h.U.30.18),950 naktāhva (A.h.U.25.67),951 namaskarī (A.h.Sū.15.38),952 nayanausadha (A.h.Ci.11.59), 953 nirmālya (A.h.U.5.18), 954 nrpadruma (A.h.Ci.1.121; 5.3; 12.42; U.3.44; 6.24), 955 nrpataru (A.h.Ci.19.37), 956 nrtyakundaka (A.h.Ci.11. 30), 957 pālani (A.h.Ci.1.90), 958 pālanikā (A.h.Ci.1.92), 959 pālevata (A.h.Sū.6.135; 10.26), 960 pankaja (A.h.U.39.104), 961 pārthā (A.h.Sū.15.24), 962 paśugandhā (A.h.Sū. 15.34; Ci.14.31), 963 pītāngī (A.h.U.22.98), 964 pītatailā (A.h.Sū.15.28), 965 prāṇadā (A.h.Ci.1.153; 9.5 and 104; 13.17), 966 prapundrāhva (A.h.U.18.47), 967 priyāhvā (A.h.U.5.19), 968 pundra (A.h.Sū.15.12; U.11.49; 16.15; 22.37), 969 pundrāhva (A.h. Sū.22.21; U.13.5; 22.91), 970 puridraka (A.h.Sū.5.45), 971 puṣkara jaṭā (A.h.U.7.20; U.40.56), 972 rajanaka (A.h.Sū.15.45), 973 raktairanda (A.h.Sū.5.58), 974 raktayastikā (A.h.Sū.21.17), 975 rāmā (A.h.U.24.35), 976 rodhraśūka (A.h.Sū.6.1), 977 rodikā (A.h.U. 28.35), 978 rujākara (A.h.Sū.15.21), 979 sabaradesaja (A.h.U.16.4), 980 sabarakandaka (A.h.U.18.58), 981 śabarodbhava (A.h.U.32.31), 982 sadāphala (A.h.Sū.15.41), 983 śākavara (A.h.U.37.84),984 śańkha (A.h.U.1.48),985 śańkhakusumā (A.h.U.39.61),986 sārāmukha (A.h.Sū.6.1), 987 saroruhā (A.h.Ci.14.70), 988 sarpalocanā (A.h.U.37.83), 989 sarpasugandhā (A.h.Ci.14.104), 990 śaśānkakiranākhyā (A.h.Ci.5.49), 991 śaśānkalekhā (A.h.Ci.19.46), 992 śataparvikā (A.h.Sū.7.25), 993 śephālī (A.h.U.13.90), 994 śikhin (A.h.Ci.8.157; U.39.107 and 169), 995 śiśira (A.h.Sū.15.11), 996 śīta (A.h.Sū.15.37), 997 sphotahetu (A.h.Ci.20.11), 998 śrī (A.h.Ci.1.32), 999 śrīvāsa (A.h.U.3.56), śrīvāsaka (A.h.Sū.15.43), 1000 sruvavrksa (A.h.Sū.15.17), 1001 sthūlakākādanī (A.h.Ci.17.27), 1002 śukataru (A.h.U.5.20; 40.48), 1003 surālā (A.h.Sū.15.4), 1004 surataru (A.h.Ci.19. 41; U.22.85), 1005 suravārunī (A.h.Ci.19.81), 1006 sūsā (A.h.Sū.6.72; Ci.9.21), 1007 suvarnadugdhā (A.h.Ci.19.81), 1008 suvarnatvac (A.h.Sū.21.17), 1009 svastika (A.h.Ci. 9.20), 1010 śvetādrikarnī (A.h.U.5.10), 1011 śvetakatabhī (A.h.U.5.10 and 46; 38.20), 1012 śvetapattra (A.h.U.5.33), 1013 śvetarodhra (A.h.U.9.11; 16.16 and 32), 1014 śvetavāha (A.h.Sū.15.19), 1015 tala (A.h.Sū.15.19), 1016 tavaksīrī (A.h.Sū.30.51; Ci.3.66; 5.30; 9.113; Ka.2.10; U.24.54; 39.37 and 42), 1017 tejinī (A.h.Śā.2.42; U.22.56), 1018 tīksna (A.h.Ci.5.54; U.14.32; 19.14), 1019 tīksnaka (A.h.Śā.1.88), 1020 tīksnamūla (A.h.U.36.59), 1021 tīksnavrksa (A.h.Sū.15.45), 1022 tikta (A.h.U.2.25), 1023 tiktaka (A.h.Ci.10.34; 15.70), 1024 tiktottama (A.h.Ka.1.24), 1025 tindiśa (A.h.Sū.6.87), 1026 toyada (A.h.Ci.12.7; Ka.4.35; U.34.46), 1027 trihima (A.h.Sū.15.19), 1028 tripādī (A.h. Sū.15.9), 1029 trnadhānya (A.h.Ci.12.11), 1030 tuvarī (A.h.Sū.29.34; Ci.19.25), 1031 udaka (A.h.Ci.19.), 1032 ugra (A.h.U.5.20), 1033 ullaka (A.h.Ci.8.149), 1034 upalabhedaka (A.h.Ci.11.2), 1035 uttamakāranī (A.h.U.30.27), 1036 uttaravārunī (A.h.U.37.79), 1037 uttundikī (A.h.U.30.18), 1038 vaidehī (A.h.Ci.3.55; 9.90; Ka.4.50; U.11.43), 1039 vajra (A.h.Ci.19.19), 1040 valla (A.h.Sū.7.32), 1041 vāmšika (A.h.Sū.5.45), 1042 vāraņaka (A.h.Sū.17.7), 1043 vātyābhidhāna (A.h.Ci.14.36), 1044 vātyāhva (A.h.Ci.14.50), 1045 vāyasajanghā (A.h.Ci.19.76), 1046 vella (A.h.Sū.15.4; 23.15; 27.36; Ci.8.33, 65, 149, 155, 159; 12.25; 14.18 and 21; 15.10; 16.14 and 39; 19.36, 42, 81; U.1.46; 2.76; 6.28; 20.14, 18, 21, 23; 22.21 and 101; 28.28; 39.11, 150, 169), 1047 vellantara (A.h.Sū.15. 24), 1048 viralā (A.h.Sū.15.41), 1049 viśvauṣadha (A.h.Ci.3.120; 11.29), 1050 yavānaka (A.h.Ci.6.51; 8.46; 14.17; 17.11). 1051

The identities of the authors of the Samgraha and the Hrdaya

Several views on the identity of the author of the Samgraha have already been discussed. Most scholars accept the trustworthiness of the information given at the end of the treatise, without discussing whether this information refers to the author of an original Samgraha or to a Vāgbhaṭa, who was involved in the process of its versification. The latter possibility would more easily explain that the *Hṛdaya* too came to be ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa.

- J. Jolly, ¹⁰⁵² who regarded the information at the end of the *Sangraha* as probably reliable, advanced that the Vāgbhaṭa mentioned in the colophons of MSS of the *Hṛdaya*, where the genealogy is not repeated, may simply have usurped the name of Vāgbhaṭa, son of Siṃhagupta.
- A.B. Keith ¹⁰⁵³ gave as his opinion that the younger writer was very possibly a descendant of the older, though there is no proof for such a conjecture beyond the fact that it might explain their confusion.
- P.V. Sharma ¹⁰⁵⁴ suggested that the author of the *Hṛdaya* may have been a grandson of the Vāgbhaṭa who wrote the *Saṃgraha*.

The relative chronological positions of the Samgraha and the Hrdaya

The anteriority of the *Sangraha* is accepted by the majority of those who expressed their opinion on the subject. ¹⁰⁵⁵

Various arguments in support are met with again and again. The language of the

Hrdaya is thought to be more literary and sophisticated to such a degree that the work must be later. ¹⁰⁵⁶ Those advancing this argument usually point to the fact that the Hrdaya is entirely in verse, without examining and comparing the qualities of the parts in verse found in both works. ¹⁰⁵⁷ Important would be to detect significant differences in this respect, proving the superiority of the Hrdaya.

Few studies of this subject are so far available. P.V. Sharma 1058 made a list of the metres employed in Samgraha and Hrdaya, 1059 and compared these with the metres found in Kālidāsa's Abhijāānaśākuntala. This study revealed that two metres used in the Samgraha are absent from the Hrdaya: the campakamālā and the sāriņī. 1060 Metres found in the Hrdaya, but not in the Samgraha, are: bhadrā, 1061 daṇḍaka, 1062 dhīralalitā, 1063 gāthā, gīti, 1064 mandākrāntā, 1065 mātrāsamaka, 1066 mattamayūra, 1067 mukhacapalā, 1068 śuddhavirāj, 1069 upacitrā, 1070 vaiśvadevī, 1071 vaitālīya, 1072 and vipulā. 1073

Both Samgraha and Hṛdaya contain examples of the literary device of using the name of the metre in the verse composed in it. 1074

Poetical gunas frequent in the Samgraha are prasada and madhurya. 1075

Elements of the prose style of the Saingraha are those called cūrnaka (short compounds), utkalikā (long compounds), and āviddha (no compounds). 1076

Rhetoric figures used in the *Saṃgraha* are: ¹⁶⁷⁷ chekānuprāsa, ¹⁰⁷⁸ lāṭānuprāsa, ¹⁰⁷⁹ and yamaka ¹⁶⁸⁰ among the śabdālaṃkāras; arthālaṃkāras employed are: arthāpatti, ¹⁰⁸¹ atiśayokti, ¹⁰⁸² dīpaka, ¹⁰⁸³ nidarśanā, ¹⁰⁸⁴ rūpaka, ¹⁰⁸⁵ svābhāvokti, ¹⁰⁸⁶ tulyayogitā, ¹⁰⁸⁷ upamā, ¹⁰⁸⁸ utprekṣā, ¹⁰⁸⁹ vibhāvanā, ¹⁰⁹⁰ vyatireka, ¹⁰⁹¹ and yathāsamkhya. ¹⁰⁹²

Hilgenberg and Kirfel are among the few scholars to have defended the thesis that the *Hrdaya* is the basic work, while the *Samgraha* is an enlarged version of the same. They argued that the designation Vrddhavāgbhaṭa for the *Samgraha* does not indicate at all that this work is the older of the two and listed many similar cases which suggest that a Vrddha version is simply a later and expanded version of a shorter treatise. As a very clear example they mentioned the *Vrddhacāṇakya*, a work definitely later than the more original collection going under Cāṇakya's name. The same authors were convinced that both *Hrdaya* and *Samgraha* were originally metrical treatises. They regarded the *Samgraha* as it has come down to us as secondarily partly changed into prose and tried to underpin this by collecting a long series of passages which, in their opinion, show traces of a gradual transformation of verse into prose.

This list ¹⁰⁹³ consists of: A.h.Sū.12.1–5ab(cf. A.s.Sū.20.1–2); ¹⁰⁹⁴ Ci.10.50 (cf. A.s. Ci.12.13); 11.47–54ab (cf. A.s.Ci.13.27–28); ¹⁰⁹⁵ 12.38cd–40ab (cf. A.s.Ci.14.21) ¹⁰⁹⁶ and 42–43ab (cf. A.s.Ci.14.22); ¹⁰⁹⁷ 13.16–17 (cf. A.s.Ci.15.6) ¹⁰⁹⁸ and 18cd–20ab (cf. A.s.Ci.15.6–7); 14.82cd–83ab ¹⁰⁹⁹ and 85–87ab (cf. A.s.Ci.16.25–27); ¹¹⁰⁰ 15.93–94 (cf. A.s.Ci.17.35); ¹¹⁰¹ 16.2–4 (cf. A.s.Ci.18.2); ¹¹⁰² 17.22cd–24ab (cf. A.s.Ci.19.9) and 28cd–30ab (cf. A.s.Ci.19.12); 18.26 (cf. A.s.Ci.20.11); ¹¹⁰³ 19.1–2ab (cf. A.s.Ci.21.2); U.1.5d–7ab (cf. A.s.U.1.7–8) and 13cd–14 (Cf. A.s.U.1.14–15); ¹¹⁰⁴ 11.4cd–5ab (cf. A.s.U.14.4), ¹¹⁰⁵ 6cd–7ab (cf. A.s.U.14.5), ¹¹⁰⁶ 48cd (cf. A.s.U.14.37).

As the examples given by Hilgenberg and Kirfel in support of their thesis are not persuasive at all and miss all cogency, it is justified to dismiss their line of reasoning aiming at establishing that the Samgraha is posterior to the Hrdaya.

Almost no further research has been devoted to the problem whether or not the Samgraha has come down to us in the form it originally had. The problem itself has even rarely been raised, except by Hilgenberg and Kirfel 1107 and, earlier already, by P. Cordier. 1108

The hypothesis that the Samgraha was originally in prose only has never been put ferward, but is hardly a possibility to be considered, on account of the incorporation of many unchanged verses deriving from the Carakasamhitā. Nevertheless, the parts in prose may well have been more extensive.

In support of this hypothesis appears to be the fact that Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya contains quotations in prose, said to be from Vāhaṭa, which reproduce portions of the Samgraha which are in verse in the extant version. 1109

One of the many enigmatic aspects of the Samgraha has to be considered in this contexttoo, namely the fact that part of its chapters are completely identical with chapters found in the Hṛdaya. This is very conspicuous in the Nidānasthāna, where chapters four to six, eight, and twelve to sixteen are the same in both texts. The same feature is characteristic of the Uttarasthāna. 1110 A reason for this puzzling selective procedure has not yet been suggested.

The possibility that these chapters in verse replace earlier ones in prose, or in a mixture of verse and prose, cannot be excluded in principle.

Various problems have therefore to be addressed. First, the original state of the Samgraha, which need not be the text as it has come down to us. The text of the MSS requires therefore careful study, coupled to scrutiny of the quotations from Samgraha and Vrddhavāgbhaṭa.

Some early scholars already stressed that the profuse quotations from the Samgraha in Hemādri's commentary on the Hrdaya give evidence that the text he disposed of did not differ very much from that of the MSS on which the editions are based. Aruṇadatta's commentary (ad A.h.Sū.12.53–54ab), however, contains a quotation from the Samgraha consisting of twenty-five verses, which are absent from the editions of that treatise and replaced there by prose (Sū.20). [11] These verses are supposed to be from another version of the Samgraha by P. Cordier, who first noticed them, [112] though they are regarded as composed by Aruṇadatta from the original prose by Kurıte and Navre. [113]

Crucially important for assessing the development of the group of texts to which Samgraha and Hrdaya belong are the quotations from a Madhyasamhitā or Madhyavāgbhaṭa(samhitā) and from Madhyavāgbhaṭagupta, found in the commentary of Niścala on the Cakradatta and that of Śivadāsasena on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasamhitā.

Niścala's Ratnaprabhā contains a considerable number of these quotations. Śivadā-sasena's commentary has a much smaller number. As each piece of this precious information may shed light on the nature of the lost treatise, I will give an annotated list:

Niścala ad Cakradatta, jvara 3 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 3); 1114 jvara 3 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 3); 1115 jvara 236 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 235); 1116 jvara 238–239 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 237–238); 1117 jvara 247–251 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 248–252); 1118 jvara 288cd–290 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 288–290); 1119 jvara 291 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 291); 1120 atīsāra

4-5 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 4-5); 1121 atīsāra 106 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 104); 1122 graha $n\bar{n}$ 5-6 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 5-6); $n\bar{n}$ 3 graha $n\bar{n}$ 9-11 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 9-11); $n\bar{n}$ 3 arsas 1-3 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 1-3); $n\bar{n}$ 5 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 96-99); $n\bar{n}$ 125 arsas 92-95 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 96-99); $n\bar{n}$ 126 arsas 92-95 (= ed. Ratna arsas 116-122 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 120-126); 1127 arsas 155-160 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 159-164); 1128 agnimāndya 1 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 1); 1129 agnimāndya 2 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 2); 1130 agnimāndya 6-8 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 6-8); 1131 agnimāndya 28 (ed. Ratnaprabhā; absent from other editions); 1132 agnimāndva 78 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 77); 1133 krimi 16 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 12); 1134 pānduroga 23-24 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 22-23); 1135 raktapitta 38 (quotation in additional part of the commentary, found in one MS only): 1136 rājayaksman 47-60 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 47-60) (quotation in additional part of the commentary, found in one MS only); 1137 introductory part to the chapter on kāsa; 1138 introduction to hikkāśvāsa (quotation in additional part of the commentary, found in one MS only); 1139 madātyaya 21-22 (ed. Ratnaprabhā; absent from other editions) (quotation in additional part of the commentary, found in one MS only); 1140 madātyaya 21-22 (ed. Ratnaprabhā; absent from other editions) (quotation in additional part of the commentary, found in one MS only): 1141 unmāda 29-30 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 29-30) (this quotation may or may not be from Madhyavāgbhata; the editor supplied Madhya-); 1142 ostharoga 1 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 1); 1143 dantamūlaroga 23–24 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 32–33); 1144 dantaroga 8 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 41); 1145 dantaroga 10 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 43); 1146 jihvāroga 2 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 45); 1147 jihvāroga 6 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 50); 1148 tālugataroga 7cd (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 58cd); 1149 kanthagataroga 1 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 59); 1150 kanthagataroga 2 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 60); 1151 kanthagataroga 3 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 61);1152 kanthagataroga 5 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 63); 1153 karnaroga 3 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 3); 1154 karnaroga 11-12 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 11-12); 1155 karnaroga 23-24 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 23-24); 1156 karnaroga 23-24 (= ed. Ratna prabhā 23-24); 1157 karnaroga 49 (= ed. Ratna prabhā 50); 1158 karnaroga 55 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 56); 1159 karnaroga 56 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 57); 1160 karnaroga 62-64 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 63-65); 1161 karnaroga 62-64 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 63-65); 1162 netraroga 6 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 6); 1163 Śivadāsa ad A.h.U.22.4cd-5ab; 1164 U.22.19-20; 1165 U.22.46ab; 1166 U.22.52; 1167 U.22.53-54ab; 1168 U.22.58cd-59; 1169 U.22.93 (= ed.22.96); 1170

Next to the quotations from a Madhyavāgbhaṭa, those from an Alpavāgbhaṭa and Svalpavāgbhaṭa have to be considered. The commentators quoting from these treatises are Niścala and Śivadāsasena again. The Alpavāgbhaṭa is quoted by Niścala ad Cakradatta, tālugataroga 7cd (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 58cd); 1171 karṇaroga 56 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 57); 1172 anuvāsana 34 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 33); 1173 The Svalpavāgbhaṭa 1174 is quoted by Niścala ad Cakradatta, dantaroga 8 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā, mukharoga 41); 1175 karṇaroga 23–24 (= ed. Ratnaprabhā 23–24); 1176 Śivadāsasena ad Cakradatta, karṇaroga 11–13; 1177

This material shows that a treatise intermediate between Samgraha and Hṛdaya once existed. The quotations collected prove beyond any doubt that the Madhyavā-gbhaṭa was still in a mixture of prose and verse, but contained already more verse than

the Saṃgraha, without the addition of any important new material. The Alpavāgbhaṭa and Svalpavābhaṭa did not differ much from the Hṛdaya, as far as can be judged from the scanty material at our disposal. 1178

Versions of a treatise intermediate between Samgraha and Hrdaya may still exist in some MSS. P. Cordier 179 records that such a version has partially been edited under the title Bābhata. 1180 This treatise, in 120 chapters, calls itself an Astāngasangraha; its text sometimes agrees with the Samgraha, sometimes with the Hrdaya, but also contains verses absent from both. 1181

Āyurvedic treatises later than Samgraha and Hrdaya, as well as commentaries, may contain quotations ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa that cannot be traced, which implies that they are possibly from one of the intermediate works. One such quotation, found in Niścala's Ratnaprabhā, ¹¹⁸² describes the treatment of saṃgrahagrahaṇī, a type of grahaṇī that appears in a verse added to the Mādhavanidāna and in later works, but is completely absent from the versions of Samgraha and Hrdaya known to us.

All the evidence, when taken together, appears to suggest that it is legitimate to have doubts about the authenticity of the text of the Sangraha as it has been transmitted. The treatise known as Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha now may well be an already partially transformed version of an older text. The versification and the alterations in doctrine, therapeutics, etc., have probably formed part of a gradual process of change, which must have required time and the participation of a series of authors. ¹¹⁸³ The result of this development was the coming into being of the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃḥitā, a work that cannot simply be ascribed to one author, although one particular person may have given it its ultimate form. ¹¹⁸⁴

The impression that the Hrdaya is a harmonious unity as to style and contents, which led a majority of scholars to regard it as the work of one author, may be deceptive. This point has been clearly expressed in particular by Hilgenberg and Kirfel, 1185 Their reasoning, though based on the assumption of the anteriority of the Hrdaya, requires consideration nevertheless. They pointed to differences in style of the Nidānasthāna of the Hrdaya, when compared with the other sections, but, unfortunately, omitted to illustrate this claim, which makes it hard to assess. More important are two other points. The first chapter of the Nidānasthāna repeats (A.h.Ni.1.12-24), after dealing with the five elements constituting nidana, the causes of excitation of the dosas, which is a subject already discussed in the Sütrasthāna. This may, in the opinion of Hilgenberg and Kirfel, mean that the Nidanasthana originated as an independent treatise or as the first part of some medical work; in support of this hypothesis, they refer to the version of the Nidānasthāna extant in the Garudapurāna, where it is associated with the name of Dhanvantari; they add that the solution of this question hinges on the chronological position of the medical chapters of the Garudapurāna. The thesis that the repetition of material suggests an independent treatise need not be subscribed to, because this feature proves to be rather common, for example, in the Carakasamhitā, when its Nidānasthāna and Cikitsāsthāna are compared. Chapter one of the Nidānasthāna of the Samgraha presents the same repetition as that found in the Hrdaya, and its prose version, probably older, is not directly related to that in verse of the Garudapurāna, which makes the reasoning of Hilgenberg and Kirfel unconvincing.

The conclusion of this long exposition can but be that the problems connected with the development of *Samgraha*, *Hrdaya* and the intermediate versions, as well as those concerning the authors involved, are far from even approaching a solution.

Vāgbhata's renown

The fame of Vāgbhaṭa spread over a large area of Indian culture. The Aṣṭāngaḥr-dayasamhitā became the object of intensive study, as shown by the very large number of its commentaries. Several later works were inspired by it. The Hrdaya was translated into Tibetan, together with Candranandana's commentary, 1186 and reached the Islamic world.

Vāgbhaṭa is held in high esteem particularly in Kerala, where he is the legendary master who taught the medical science to the ancestors of the Aṣṭavaidya lineages. The medical training of an Aṣṭavaidya physician ends with the daily recitation of ten chapters of the *Hṛdaya* in the family shrine, to be continued during a full year, the ekāda-sī days of each half of the lunar month excepted; this exception honours the day of Vāgbhaṭa's supposed decease. ¹¹⁸⁷ An Aṣṭavaidya medical graduate is also obliged to make a palm leaf copy of the *Aṣṭāngahrdayasamhitā*. ¹¹⁸⁸

Vägbhaṭa was also well known in Āndhra, as is attested by the existence of a rendering of the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā into Telugu verse. This version was made by Lingayārya, who was a pupil of the famous scholar Bālasarasvatī Mahāmahopādhyāya, in the seventeenth century.¹¹⁸⁹

Vāgbhaṭa's work (probably the *Hṛdaya*) was translated into Persian in A.D. 1473, by 'Alī bin Muḥammad bin Ismāīl Asāwlī Usailī under the title of Ṣhifā'-e-Maḥmūdī; it was written during the reign of Sulṭān Maḥmūd Shāh I of Gujarāt (A.D.1458-1511), who founded a department of translation for famous Arabic and Sanskrit works. The work consists of eight sections, dealing respectively with anatomy, children's diseases, the evil effects of air, diseases and their treatment, wounds, the treatment of bites of poisonous animals, the treatment of possession states, and the restoration of virility. ^{II90}

An important issuethat remains to be discussed is the relationship between the classical text of Tibetan medicine, called Rgyud-bźi, 1191 and the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā. This relationship has been studied by R.E. Emmerick, 1192 who discovered that at least one stanza of the Rgyud-bźi is absolutely identical with the corresponding passage in the Tibetan translation of Vāgbhaṭa's work. 1193 Moreover, consideration must be taken of the fact that many chapters of the Rgyud-bźi correspond extremely closely to the Tibetan translation of the Hṛdaya, if allowance is made for the adjustment that is required to compare the nine-syllable lines of the Rgyud-bźi with the seven-syllable lines of the Vāgbhaṭa translation. The question raised by this state of affairs concerns the relative chronology of the two Tibetan texts. Did the translator of the Hṛdaya make use of an already existing Tibetan version, traditionally ascribed to Vairocana, or is the Rgyud-bźi based on Rin-chen bzan-po's Tibetan translation of the Hṛdaya? This question cannot be solved with any certainty. 1194

Chapter 2

Authorities mentioned in the works ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa, but absent from Caraka- and Suśrutasaṃhitā

Authorities mentioned in the Astāngahrdayasamhitā

- o Agastya Ci.3.132; 6.55.
- o Agniveśa Sū.1.4; Ni.2.62; U.40.59 and 62.
- o Ātreya Sū.1.2; Śā.3.49; 5.128; U.34.50; 40.59.
- o Atrinandana Śā.3.17.
- o Atriputra Sū.1.3.
- o Bhārgava (i.e., Cyavana) Ci.22.66.
- o Bheda Ci.21.72; U.40.59 and 88.
- o Caraka Sū.9.13; U.40.84 and 88.
- o Cyavana (compare Bhārgava) U.39.39.
- o Dhanvantari Śā.2.52; 3.16 and 50; Ci.10.63; 12.24; 17.14.
- o Hārīta Ni.2.62.
- o Kāśyapa U.37.24 and 28.
- o Nimi U.11.27; 13.16 and 100; U.30.31.
- o Punarvasu U.40.62.
- Saunaka Ka.6.15.
- o Suśruta U.30.31; 40.84 and 88.
- o Vasistha Ci.3.140.
- o Videha U.13.27; 22.83.
- Vrddhakāśyapa U.2.43.

Authorities mentioned in the Astāngasamgraha

- o Agastya Ci.5.84; 8.61; U.5.60.
- o Agniveśa Sū.1.11; 28.34; Ni.2.64; Ka.5.57; U.50.202.
- o Ālambāyana Sū.1.6; U.40.35.
- o Ātreya often, e.g., Sū.1.2; 28.34; Śā.3.3 and 5; U.49.262.
- o Atri U.50.209.
- o Bharadvāja Sū.1.6; 8.59.
- o Bheda Sū.1.11; Ci.16.14; 23.60.
- o Bhoja U.42.50.
- Bṛhaspati Sū.8.62.
- o Caraka Sū.28.54; Śā.10.29–32a; Ka.8, add. 25, 27, 61, 70.
- o Cyavana Sū.8.59; U.49.45.

- o Dhanvantari Sū.1.6; 8.59; Śā.3.8; 4.51; U.5.60; 40.36.
- o Gautama Sū.8.86.
- Hārīta Sū. 1.11; Ni. 2.64.
- o Janaka Sū.8.59.
- o Kāṅkāyana Ci.10.51.
- o Kapilabala Sū.20.17.
- o Karāla Sū.1.11.
- o Kāśirāja Sū.28.34.
- Kaśyapa Sū.1.6.
- o Kāśyapa Sū.1.6; U.40.149; 43.49 and 54; 48.72.
- o Kautilya U.40.78.
- Khandakāpya Śā.3.5.
- o Kharanāda Ka.8, add. 45, 47, 80.
- Krsnātreya Śā.10.33; Ka.8, add. 5 and 50.
- o Māndavya Sū.1.11.
- o Nagnajit U.40.33.
- o Nārada U.49.206.
- Nimi Sū.1.6; U.16.16 and 94.
- Parāśara Sū.17.26; 21.16.
- Punarvasu Sū.1.5; Ka.5.57; U.40.28.
- o Puskalāvata U.30.11.
- Saunaka Ka.8.20-21.
- o Suśruta Sū.1.11; 8.59; 20.18; 21.22; Śā.10.32; Ka.8, add. 17 and 79.
- Uśanas U.40.88.
- o Vaitarana U.42.50.
- o Vasistha Ci.5.92.
- o Videha Sū.8.59; U.17.7; 40.34.
- o Videhapati Sū.28.34.
- o Viśvāmitra U.74.2.
- Vrddhakāśyapa U.2.60.

ĀLAMBĀYANA¹ is mentioned as a medical authority and a specialist in toxicology in the *Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha*. He is quoted or referred to, almost always on toxicological subjects, by Anantakumāra, the author of the *Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya*, Dalhaṇa, Indu, the author of the *Kairalī* commentary on the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā*, Parameśvara, Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, and Vācaspati.

Ālambāyana i s also known in Buddhist literature. The $Bh\bar{u}ridatta$ -Jātaka (No. 543) refers to him as a toxicologist. ¹²

Some representatives of the Indian tradition regard him as the author of a lost treatise on kaumārabhṛtya, 13 but he is usually reckoned among the authors of an agadatantra. 14

BRHASPATI¹⁵ is mentioned as a medical authority in the Bower Manuscript and in the Astāṇgasamgraha. The Bower Manuscript contains a formula ascribed to Brhaspati

that aims at increasing bodily strength and bulk. ¹⁶ The Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha gives a series of prescriptions of Bṛhaspati to be employed in the protection of a king against the effects of poison. ¹⁷ The Bhāratabhaiṣajyaratnākara and Yogaratnākara attribute to Bṛhaspati the formula of a kumāryāsava to be used in the treatment of gulma. ¹⁸ Śivadāsasena regards Jīvaka, to whom a recipe of the Cakradatta is attributed, as identical with Bṛhaspati. ¹⁹

Hemādri's Lakṣaṇaprakāśa calls Bṛhaspati one of the originators of āyurveda.²⁰ Ugrāditya's Kalyāṇakāraka refers to him as one of those who were opposed to a nonvegetarian diet. Bṛhaspati is credited with a commentary on a Dhanvantarisūtra²¹ and with alchemical works called Rasacakra²² and Rasacandratantra.²³

Bṛhaspati is regarded as the author of a treatise on toxicology (agadatantra)²⁴ or as a specialist in kaumārabhṛtya.²⁵ He is already associated with medicine in the Rgveda²⁶ and Atharvaveda.²⁷ The medical skill of Bṛhaspati is also referred to in the Rāmā yaṇa.²⁸ The Mahābhārata²⁹ describes him as being ignorant of the mṛtasaṛŋīvinī vidyā.³⁰

Bṛhaspati's name is not only connected with human medicine, but also with ga jaśāstra and the treatment of diseases in elephants. He is mentioned in Pālakāpya's Hastyā-yurveda and Nīlakaṇṭha's Mātaṅgalīlā, and is the reputed author of a treatise on elephants, called Gajalakṣaṇa or Bṛhaspatimata.³¹ A treatise on horses, Aśvalakṣaṇa, is also attributed to him.

Bṛhaspati and the Bārhaspatya are among the sources of kallolas six and seven of the Śivatattvaratnākara.

Brhaspati is associated with many other sciences: grammar, arthaśāstra, nītiśāstra, ³² dharmaśāstra, jyotiṣa, vāstuśāstra, citraśikhandiśāstra, and ratnaśāstra. ³³

KAPILABALA³⁴ is a medical authority quoted in the *Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha*.³⁵ He is also quoted or referred to by Cakrapāṇidatta, ³⁶ Candraṭa, ³⁷ Indu, ³⁸ Niścalakara, ³⁹ Śivadāsasena, ⁴⁰ Śrīdāsapaṇdita, ⁴¹ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ⁴² and Vangasena, ⁴³ as well as in the *Jvaracikitsita* and *Jvarasamuccaya*. ⁴⁴

Kapilabala is sometimes equated with Kapila.45

Kapilabala is, just like Kapila, credited with a salyatantra. 46 This Kapilabala is often considered to be Dṛḍhabala's father; 47 evidence pointing to this identity is, however, absent.

G. Hāldār is of the opinion that Drdhabala's father was called Kapibala and that a much earlier Kapilabala, whom he calls the navīnacaraka, revised the Carakasamhitā. He ascribes a Kapilatantra to him and assigns him to the period of Kaniska. ⁴⁸

The quotations from Kapilabala are not concerned with surgical subjects, but deal with basic concepts, general principles of treatment, the treatment of fever, ⁴⁹ and pharmacy. The statements cited are partly in verse, ⁵⁰ which indicate that they may be from a Kapilabalatantra. This treatise, anterior to the Aṣṭāṇgasaṇgraha, must even have preceded the revision of the Susrutasaṇhitā, since Indu states that Suśruta was acquainted with Kapilabala's views. The quotations by Cakrapāṇidatta show that Bhaṭṭāraharicandra, the commentator on the Carakasaṇhitā, is later than Kapilabala and disagreed with him.

Khandakāpya is in the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha (Śā.3.5) a medical authority who contradicts Ātreya's views on the diet of a pregnant woman. He also makes his appearance in the Bhelasaṃhitā (Śā.4.30), where he takes part in the discussion on the formation of the embryo. 51

MĀNPAVYA ⁵² is mentioned as the author of a medical treatise in the *Aṣṭāngasangraha* (Sū.1.11). He is traditionally regarded as the author of a treatise on rasāyana. ⁵³ Medical works referring to Māṇḍavya are Kapilamiśra's *Nāḍīprabodhana* and Ugrāditya's *Kalyāṇakāraka*. The latter work knows him as a sage who was opposed to a non-vegetarian diet. Pālakāpya's *Hastyāyurveda* knows Māṇḍavya as one of the sages assembled at Romapāda's court in order to be instructed in the art of hastyāyurveda.

The rasaśāstra literature is also acquainted with Māṇḍavya. His name occurs in the Pāradasaṃhitā, ⁵⁴ Rasaratnākara, ⁵⁵ Rasaratnasamuccaya, ⁵⁶ Rasataraṅgiṇī, ⁵⁷ Rasendramaṅgala, ⁵⁸ and Rasopaniṣad. ⁵⁹

Ţoḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya quotes a verse from an authority called Māṇḍava. 60

A treatise called Rasavāridhi is ascribed to him. ⁶¹ Vācaspatimiśra's glosses on Vyāsa's commentary on the Yogasūtra mention that Māndavya became a long-lived person due to his mastery of rasāyana techniques. ⁶²

Persons called Māṇḍavya are found in Vedic literature, ⁶³ the *Mahābhārata*, ⁶⁴ *Kautilīya Arthaśāstra*, ⁶⁵ and several Purāṇas. ⁶⁶ A Māṇḍavya is mentioned by Pingala as an authority on metrics. ⁶⁷ An astronomer called Māṇḍavya is quoted in several jyotiṣa texts and commentaries. ⁶⁸ Vaśiṣṭha is said to have been Māṇḍavya's teacher in matters relating to astronomy. ⁶⁹

UŚANAS 70 is a medical authority mentioned in the Asṭāngasangraha (U.40.88), where an antidote (agada) is ascribed to him. The Bower MS (II.846–847) contains the formula of an aphrodisiac, attributed to Uśanas. Dalhaṇa quotes him as a specialist in the treatment of poisoning. 71 A verse from Uśanas on the twenty types of prameha is found in the \bar{A} yurvedābdhisāra. 72 Ballālasena refers to him in his Adbhutasāgara. 73

Usanas is usually regarded as the author of a treatise on toxicology (an agadatantra or -sannitā), ⁷⁴ but his verse on prameha is not in agreement with this view.

The name of an ancient sage called Uśanas is found in the Rgveda, later Vedic literature, the Purāṇas, and literary works. ⁷⁵ Uśanas is also referred to and quoted as an authority on poetics, ⁷⁶ nītiśāstra, ⁷⁷ dharmaśāstra, and dhanurveda. ⁷⁸

Chapter 3

Commentaries on the works ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa

Anonymous commentaries without title are recorded in the MS catalogues. 1

ARUŅADATTA wrote a commentary called SARVĀNGASUNDARĀ, ² which covers all the sections of the Astāngahrdayasamhitā.

This commentary is a valuable and interesting work. It is obviously based on Candranandana's Padārthacandrikā, large parts of which are literally reproduced, 3 but adds much new material and is richer in references and quotations. Candranandana's views are not always blindly followed. Many passages show that Aruṇa had his own ideas, for example on the identity of medicinal plants. 4 The text of the Aṣṭā-ṅgaḥṛdaya, accepted by Aruṇadatta, differs at places from the version preferred by Candranandana. 5

The Sarvāngasundarā is more elaborate than the Padārthacandrikā; it is evidently written by a learned man with a great command of a number of sciences. ⁶ Remarks on grammar are frequent and grammatical works are referred to, ⁷ as well as treatises on metrics and poetics. ⁸ The metres of Vāgbhaṭa's verses are often identified. ⁹ Remarkable is Aruṇa's skill in composing verses of his own. ¹⁰

An important contribution of Aruṇadatta is his long and detailed exposition on the tantrayuktis. ¹¹

Characteristic of Aruṇa is his refusal to elucidate the Buddhist elements found in the $Ast\bar{a}ngahrdayasamhit\bar{a}$. ¹²

Authorities and works quoted or referred to by Aruṇadatta are: ¹³ Abhidhānakośa (Sū.26.16cd–17ab), ¹⁴ ācārya, ¹⁵ Āgama, ¹⁶ Agniveśa (Sū.1.4cd–5ab), Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha (passim), ¹⁷ Aṣṭāṅgāvatāra (Sū.4.6cd–7c; Ci.17.17cd–19), ¹⁸ Ātreya (Sū.1.5cd–6ab; U.39.142), Āyurvedāvatāra (Sū.5.55–56; Śā.3.7–8ab), ¹⁹ Bālāditya (Sū.2.16), ²⁰ Bāṇa (Sū.9.1c), Bauddhatantra (U.40.78–80), Bhāṣya(kāra or -kṛt) (Sū.4.9ab; Śā.5.15cd–16ab; Ni.11.17cd–18a; Ci.10.4–5), ²¹ Bhaṭṭārakahariścandra (Sū.1.1), ²² Bheḍa (Sū.1.3–4ab; Śā.5.30–32), Caraka (passim), Dāruvāhi (Sū.5.20cd–21c; Śāl.5), Dhāruvantara (Sū.5.44–45ab), ²³ dhānvantarāḥ (Sū.19.20cd–24ab), Dhanvantari (Sū.1.1; 6.158cd; ²⁴ 17.2–4ab; ²⁵ 19.20cd–24ab; Śā.3.90–95), Dṛḍhabala (Śā.3.62cd–63ab), ²⁶ grantha (Sū.1.28cd, 30–31, 32ab, 32cd; Ni.3.3), granthakāra (Sū.5.51cd–53ab; 27.23cd–24ab; Ni.3.1–2), ²⁷ grantakṛt (Sū.1.1, 5cd–6ab, 7cd; 13.28–29ab; 14.34; Ci.1.40ab; 3, intr.), granthāntara (Sū.5.50cd), Hariścandra (Sū.5.23cd), ²⁸ Hārūta (Sū.1.3–4ab; 6.63cd–64ab; Ni.2.79), Janaka (Sū.1.4cd–5ab), Jātūkarṇara (Sū.1.3–4ab), Jayāditya (Sū.1.1), ²⁹ Kālidāsa (Ci.21.5cd–6ab), ³⁰ kāṇādāḥ (Sū.1.11ab), Karṇāta (Sū.9.1c), ³¹ Kāšyapa (Sū.1.3–4ab; U.3.47cd–48ab), Kharaṇāda and Khāraṇādi,

Krsnātreya (Sū.5.9cd-10; 6.7cd-8ab, 20cd-21ab, 158ab; Śā.5.2cd-3ab), Ksārapāni (Sū.14.6-7ab), Māgha (Sū.2.25ab), Manu (Sū.12.70), Mīmārnsā (Sū.8.1), Muni (often), ³² Nāgānandanātaka (Śā.5.6cd-8ab), ³³ Nagnajit (Śā.3.62cd-63ab), Nighantu (Sū.6.97cd-98ab and 135cd-136ab), ³⁴ Nimi (Sū.1.3-4ab), Pānaka (Sū.5.55-56). ³⁵ Parāśara (Sū.1.3-4ab; 6.7cd-8ab; Ci.1.148), Ravigupta (Sū.5.23cd),³⁶ Rudrabhatta (Sū.1.7cd),³⁷ Rudrata (Sū,14.36),³⁸ Samgraha (passim),³⁹ Sāmkhya (Śā.3.62cd– 63ab), 40 Śāstrakāra (Sū.1.9; 4.35; 7.56cdd-59; U.5, intr.), 41 Śāstrakrt (Sū.6.17-1 8ab; 6.172; U.40.5), 42 Siddhasāra (Sū.1.4cd-5ab; 5.23cd; 6.41cd; 7.45ab), 43 Suśruta (passim), tantrakāra (Sū.1.1, intr.; 1.1 and 6cd; 4.22cd-23; 5.51cd-53ab; Śā.1.8-9ab; 3.57-58; Ci.1.18-19ab and 70; U.40.78), 44 tantrakārāh (Ci.2.22; U.40.5), tantrakrt (Sū.1.5cd-6ab; 7.32cd and 56cd-59; 9.3cd-4ab; 19.13-14ab; Ni.1.14-15; 2.6ab and 60-63; 3.1-2; 4, intr.; 10.36; Ci.1.39 and 104cd-105ab; 17.17cd-19; 21.56; Ka.1.28; U.5, intr.; 28.9cd; 40.78), tantrakrtah (Sū.18.31; 19.38cd-41ab; Ni.10. 28; 11.39-41ab; Ci.1.39; 3.133-141ab), tantrāntara (Sū.3.30cd-32ab; 5.47ab and 70cd-71; 6.17-18ab, 25cd-26ab, 32ab, three quotations, 33ab, 38cd-40ab, 41cd, 106-107, 112ab, 122cd-125ab, 158cd; 8.55; 9.26cd-27ab; 12.65-66; 14.6; 16.20ab; 20.22ab; 23.15d-16ab and 25; 26.33-34; 27.44cd-45ab; 29.41ab; \$\bar{a}\$.1.49ab; 2.3-6a; 3.55-56; Ni.2.21-22, 56cd-57, 60-63; 6.5; 9.15; Ci.1.15cd-16ab, 34cd, 47, 115cd; 2.27-28; 6.23-24; 8.89cd-93ab; 9.5cd-7; 14.13cd-21ab; 17.14cd-16; Ka.1.12d-13a; U.40.2cd-3 and 78), 45 tantrantarīyāh (Sū.1.6), tantrantarīyamata (Sū.19.38cd-41ab), Udbhata (Sū.3.23cd-25),46 Vāgbhata (passim),47 vaišesikāh (Sū.1.1; 9.3cd-4ab), Vālmīki (Śā.5.110), vrddhavaidyāh (Sū.19.20cd-24ab; 20.37-38; Ci.8.45cd-48ab; 19.77-78), and Vyāsa (Sū.2.26cd-27ab; 8.33cd-35ab; 14.20).⁴⁸

Rudraţa's Kāvyālaṃkāra is once (ad Sū.1.1) cited without a reference to the source. Another work from which Aruṇa borrowed may be the Aṣṭānganighaṇṭu. 49 Kuṇṭe and Navre assume that Kedārabhaṭṭa's Vṛṭṭtaraṭnākara is quoted (ad Sū.15.15 and 21–22); 50 this contention conflicts with Aruṇadatta's date. An additional passage, found in one MS of the Sarvāngasundarā, quotes the Candrikā.51

Aruṇadatta and his commentary are quoted or referred to by 52 Dalhaṇa, 53 Hemādri, 54 Kṛṣṇadatta in his commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, 55 the author of the Kairalī commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥrdayasaṇhitā, 56 Lakṣmīrāma in his commentary on the Siddhabheṣajamaṇimālā, 57 Meghadeva in his commentary on the Mādhavadravyaguṇa, 58 Narahari in his Vāgbhaṭamaṇḍana, 59 Nārāyaṇa, 60 Parameśvara, 61 Śaṇkara's Lalitā on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥrdaya, 62 Śivadāsasena, 63 Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, 64 the commentary on the Tantrayukti, Todara, 65 and Vācaspati. 66

The Sundari, quoted in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya, ⁶⁷ is probably Aruna's commentary.

Arunadatta, ⁶⁸ who calls himself Aruna in the introductory verses of his commentary, ⁶⁹ was a son of Mṛgānkadatta. ⁷⁰ He was a Hindu by faith, as shown by the mangala, addressed to Viṣṇu. Some suppose Aruṇa to hail from North India, ⁷¹ while others assert that he was a resident of Bengal. ⁷²

Some are of the opinion that Aruna not only commented on the Astāngahrdaya, but on the Astāngasamgraha too. ⁷³ The solution of the problem whether or not Arunadatta

wrote acommentary on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha depends on the interpretation of a single reference in Palhaṇa's Nibandhasaṃgraha (ad Su.Ka.1.30). Palhaṇa's contrasts the interpretation of the term akṣivairāgya, ⁷⁴ given by Gayin (= Gayadāsa), with the views of the Saṃgraha and Aruṇa. This remark has been seen as pointing to a commentary on the Saṃgraha by Aruṇa, ⁷⁵ although it places the Saṃgraha and Aruṇa side by side, withoutestablishing a relationship between them. The term akṣivairāgya occurs in the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā (Sū.7.16) in the same context as in the Suśrutasaṃhitā, and is explained by Aruṇa in a sense that is close to Dalhaṇa's reference, albeit not literally the same. The Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha (Sū.8.12) does not employ the word akṣivairāgya, but an expression related to the wording of Aruṇa's remark. This proves, in my view, that Dalhaṇa refers to the Saṃgraha and Aruṇadatta's commentary on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya. ⁷⁶ P.V. Sharma, ⁷⁷ however, considers Dalhaṇa's remark to be a reference to the lexicographer Aruna.

It may be that Aruṇadatta wrote a commentary on the Suśrutasaṇṇitā, recorded as Suśrutatī kā. 78

Uncertainty exists on the question whether or not the commentator Aruṇadatta is identical with the lexicographer and grammarian of the same name. The earliest work citing the latter is Vardhamāna's auto-commentary on the *Gaṇaratnamahodadhi*, ⁷⁹ a work dated to A.D. 1140. ⁸⁰

Other authors and works quoting him are an anonymous commentary on the Amarakoşa, ⁸¹ Bhānuji Dīkṣita's Vyākhyāsudhā on the Amarakoṣa, ⁸² Durgasiṃha's Nāmalingānuśāsana, ⁸³ Jñānavimalagaṇi's commentary on Maheśvara's Śabdabhedaprakāśa, ⁸⁴ the commentaries on the Amarakoṣa by Mallinātha, ⁸⁵ Nārāyaṇa Vidyāvinoda ⁸⁶ and Rāyamukuṭa, ⁸⁷ Sādhusundaragaṇi's Dhāturatnākara, ⁸⁸ Sarvānandavandyaghaṭīya's Ṭīkāsarvasva on the Amarakoṣa, ⁸⁹ the Saupadmadhātupāṭhavyākhyā, ⁹⁰ Ujjvaladatta's Vṛtti on the Uṇādisūtras, ⁹¹ and Viśvanātha's Koṣakalpataru. ⁹²

The commentator Arunadatta lived probably in the northern part of India, because he remarks (ad A.h.Sū.7.71) on the practice of fellatio, censured by him, that is current among the southerners. ⁹³ This assertion runs counter to Vātsyāyana's observation that oral intercourse was typical of the inhabitants of the Pañjāb. ⁹⁴ As a northerner, Aruna may have committed a pious fraud in blaming the southerners for a disdained practice.

Some 95 suppose Arunadatta to have been a Bengali on account of the ending -datta of his name.

Aruṇadatta, the commentator on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya, must have lived earlier than about A.D. 1200, since Dalhaṇa refers to him. 96 The terminus post quem can be deduced from his sources. Aruṇa's main source, Candranandana's Padārthacandrikā, was written between the middle of the eighth century and about A.D. 1000. The quotations from Rudraṭa, who lived in the ninth century, 97 and from the Dhanvantarīyanighaṇṭu, dating from A.D. 1000–1100, are valuable landmarks, indicating that Aruṇa belongs to the twelfth century. The absence of quotations from Aruṇadatta's commentary in the Madhukośa and Niścalakara's Ratnaprabhā⁹⁸ may be seen as pointing to about the middle or the latter half of the twelfth century as the period in which the Sarvāṅgasundarā came into being. 99

A.F.R. Hoernle's date of Arunadatta, about A.D. 1220, uncritically adopted in many later books and articles, ¹⁰⁰ but reached on faulty grounds, ¹⁰¹ can be dismissed. Hoernle supposed that the author of the second part of the *Madhukośa* ¹⁰² controverts a certain doctrine of Arunadatta concerning the structure of the eye, but the latter's name is not mentioned, ¹⁰³ which makes the assertion baseless and without any consequence for Aruna's date.

The problem whether or not the commentator Aruṇadatta is identical with the lexicographer of the same name, who must be earlier than A.D. 1140, cannot be solved with any certainty. Chronological considerations do not completely rule out the possibility that the two are one and the same person, ¹⁰⁴ but the lexicographer may have lived earlier. ¹⁰⁵

ĀŚĀDHARA wrote a commentary, called AṢṬĀNGAHRDAYODDYOTA or -uddyotinī. Āśādhara was the son of Sallakṣaṇa and Raṭhī or Raṭnī. His wife was called Sarasvatī and his son Chāhaḍa. He was of Vyāghreravāla (Bagheravāla) lineage and a Digambara Jain householder.

Originally, Āśādhara lived in the central part of Rājasthān (Sapādalakṣa), in the town Maṇḍalakara (Māṇḍalgarh, in the Bhīlvārā district), in Śākambharī, the Cauhān kingdom. The campaigns of Muḥammad of Ghūr, and the accompanying Muslim atrocities, made him seek refuge in Dhārā, in Mālwā, in 1193, where he began his studies of grammar and logic. ¹⁰⁶ Later, he moved to Nalakacchapura (Nālchā), about twenty miles from Dhārā, and remained there.

Āśādhara was born about A.D. 1180 and wrote his works between about 1205 and 1244. He was honoured by the kings Vindhyavarınan, Arjunavarınan, Devapāla, and Jaitugideva, who are referred to in his writings.

Some of his works are: Dharmāmṛta, Jinayajñakalpa, Pratiṣṭhāsāroddhāra, Triṣastismrtiśāstra, and a commentary on the Kāvyālamkāra

Āśādhara's *Uddyota* on the *Aṣṭāngahṛdaya*, of which no manuscripts are recorded, is mentioned in one of his other works. ¹⁰⁷

Another Āśādhara, son of Rāmajī and pupil of Dharanīdhara, was the author of a commentary on Appaya Dīkṣita's Kuvalayānandakārikās; he also wrote the Kovidānanda and its commentary, and, probably, the Advaitaviveka and (Śabda)trivenikā. 108

A jyotişa author Āśādhara, son of Rihluka, wrote the Grahajfīāna, also called Grahaganita. 109

An anonymous ASTĀNGAHRDAYAVRTTI is recorded by A. Rahman. 110

An anonymous commentary, called BĀLABODHINĪ, is recorded as being preserved in a single MS of the Government Oriental Manuscripts Library, Madras. 111

An anonymous commentary, called BĀLAPRABODHIKĀ, is recorded by Th. Aufrecht ¹¹² and some later authors. ¹¹³ The *Bālaprabodhikā* was one of the commentaries known to the author of the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṇṣgraha*. A commentary, called *Bodhikā*, is referred to in Śaṃkara's *Lalitā*; it may also be Śrīdāsa's *Hṛdayabodhikā* or Udayāditya's commentary.

BHAṬṬĀRAHARIŚCANDRA is by some regarded as the author of a commentary on the Astāngahr daya. 114 There is no evidence in support of this assertion. 115

BHAŢŢAŚRĪVARDHAMĀNA is mentioned as the author of a commentary called SĀRODDHĀRA. 116

A commentary, called BRHADVYĀKHYĀSĀRA, ¹¹⁷ is mentioned by N.S. Mooss ¹¹⁸ and P.V. Sharma. ¹¹⁹

A commentary, called BṛHATPĀṬHYĀ, 120 is mentioned by A. Rahman, 121 N.S. Mooss, 122 and P.V. Sharma. 123

CANDRANANDANA ¹²⁴ was the author of the PADĀRTHACANDRIKĀ, a commentary on the whole of the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṛṇhitā. He also wrote the Madanādinighaṇṭu, and, according to some, a collection of glosses (vrtti) on the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya. ¹²⁵

The Padārthacandrikā¹²⁶ is, on account of its early date, an important work. It is therefore regrettable that only the portion covering the Sūtrasthāna has been edited. Glimpses of the interpretations of verses from the other sections can be caught from the quotations in the footnotes to Kuṇṭe and Navre's edition of the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasan-hirā¹²⁷

Candranandana does not quote from or refer to earlier commentators on Vāgbhaṭa's work. In general, his *Padārthacandrikā*, at least the part covering the Sūtrasthāna, is not a rich source of quotations and references.

Sources he does quote or refer to are: ¹²⁸ Āgama (1.2, 5cd-6ab, 19, 27, 30-31; 2.16; 3.12-14; 4.4cd-5ab; 5.68, 74cd, 79-80; 6.26cd-28ab, ¹²⁹ 32cd, 43; 8.53; 10.1; 16.14ab), Agniveśa (1.3-4ab), Ātreya (1.1), Atriputra (1.3-4ab), Bhāradvāja (1.3-4ab), Bhaṭṭāraka (1.17cd), ¹³⁰ Bheḍa (1.3-4ab), Caraka (passim), Dhanvantari (1.3-4ab; 6.158cd), ¹³¹ kāṇādāḥ (1.11ab), Kāśyapa (1.3-4ab), Kharanāda (6.115cd-117ab, 131cd-133, 149cd, 153cd-157), ¹³² Kṛṣṇātreya (6.158ab), Kṣīrapāṇi (1.3-4ab), Nighaṇṭu (6.97cd-98ab¹³³ and 136ab), ¹³⁴ Parāśara (1.3-4ab), Puṇarvasu (1.3-4ab), Saṃgraha (passim), ¹³⁵ Siddhasāra (7.45ab), Suśruta (passim), and tantrāntara (5. 29ab; ¹³⁶ 6.33cd, 106-107, 112, ¹³⁷ 122cd-125ab, ¹³⁸ 158cd; 29.41ab). ¹³⁹

Candranandana's *Madanādighantu* is not quoted by name, but the synonyms of medicinal plants, given in the commentary, are usually those found in that nighantu, ¹⁴⁰ whereas Aruṇadatta obviously drew his information from another source. With regard to the names of plants, Hemādri remains closer to Candranandana than Aruṇadatta does. In other respects, Aruṇadatta was heavily indebted to Candranandana, since many parts of his commentary are literally copied from the *Padārthacandrikā*. ¹⁴¹

Candranandana or his commentary are quoted by Aruṇadatta, ¹⁴² Dalhaṇa, ¹⁴³ Hemādri, ¹⁴⁴ Niścalakara, ¹⁴⁵ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ¹⁴⁶ Toḍara, ¹⁴⁷ and Vācaspati. ¹⁴⁸

Quotations from a commentary called $Candrik\bar{a}$ may in some instances be from the $Pad\bar{a}$ rthacandrik \bar{a} . ¹⁴⁹

A Candratīkā is mentioned at the end of Śivadāsasena's commentary on the Cakradatta 150

Candranandana wrote his *Padārthacandrikā* at the instance of Śakunadeva. ¹⁵¹ The maṅgala is addressed to Hari.

G. Hāldār alleges that the author called by him Vāgbhaṭa IV, the son of Nemi, wrote a tippanī on the *Padārthacandrikā* in the thirteenth or fourteenth century. ¹⁵²

The Pādarthacandrikā was translated into Tibetan by Rin-chen bzan-po 153 in the period 1013–1055. 154 This translation, with the title Yan-lag brgyad-paḥi sñin-poḥi rnam-par hgrel-pa chig-gi don-gyi zla-zer zes-bya-ba, i.e, Padārthacandrikāprabhāsa nāma aṣṭāngahṛdayavivṛti, 155 forms part of the Tanjur.

It is remarkable that the Tibetan translations of the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya and its commentary by Candranandana are later than the translation of Vāgbhaṭa's Vaidūryakabhāṣya. This fact is recorded in Jayapaṇḍita's Thob-yig. ¹⁵⁶ It is equally noteworthy that the Tibetan translators of the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya did not always agree with Candranandana's interpretations of its text. ¹⁵⁷

Candranandana's Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayavṛtti, called in Tibetan Sman-dpyad yan-lag brgyad-paḥi sñin-poḥi ḥgrel-pa, i.e., Vaidya Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayavṛtti, is a collection of annotations on Vāgbhata's work. 158

DĀMODARA wrote a commentary called SAMKETAMAÑJARĪ. 159

An anonymous commentary called DĪPIKĀ is recorded. 160

HĀṬAKĀNKA wrote a commentary called (AṢṬĀNGAHRDAYA)DĪPIKĀ. ¹⁶¹ This author is quoted as Hāṭaka by Parameśvara and Śrīdāsapandita, which may indicate that he lived in Southern India. ¹⁶² Śrīdāsa's quotations establish that he is anterior to Vāsudeva, Śrīdāsa's teacher, ¹⁶³ and later than Indu, with whom Hāṭaka often argues in his interpretations. ¹⁶⁴

HEMĀDRI wrote a commentary called ĀYURVEDARASĀYANA, ¹⁶⁵ which probably covered the whole of the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṃhitā*. ¹⁶⁶ The preserved parts contain the commentary on the Sūtrasthāna, Nidānasthāna 1–5 and 6.24cd–39, Cikitsitasthāna 1–6 and 7.100–115, and the Kalpasthāna. ¹⁶⁷

Hemādri's fame in Indian literary history is based on his authorship of the Caturvargacintāmani.

The introductory verses of the \bar{A} yurvedarasāyana declare that this work was written in order to enable man to acquire a healthy body, which is essential for the observance of fasts and vows and the performance of the ceremonies laid down in the Caturvargacintāmaṇi. The same verses mention his intention to elucidate differences between the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya and Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraḥa, as well as dissentient views expounded in other treatises. Hemādri adds that his comments will be based on the opinions of Caraka, Hārīta, Suśruta, and other authorities, on the commentaries on the Carakasaṃhitā by Haricandra and others, and on the commentaries by Jaijjaṭa and others on the Suśrutasaṃhitā.

A remarkable feature of Hemādri's commentary is the order he chose for his comments on the Sūtra- and Kalpasthāna. The chapters of these sections are arranged as

follows: Sū.1-15, Ka.6, Sū.16-18, Ka.3, Ka.1-2, Sū.19, Ka.5, Sū.20-30. 168

The Āyurvedarasāyana differs considerably from the earlier commentaries by Candranandana, Indu, and Aruṇadatta. Characteristic for the work are the extensive quotations from the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha, 169 and, in particular, the use made of Vṛnda's Siddhayoga 170 and Vaṇgasena's Cikitsāsārasaṃgraha. 171

Hemādri pays less attention than Aruṇadatta to points of grammar, metres, figures of speech, etc. Theoretically interesting are his remarks on the guṇas and their actions, ¹⁷² on sātmya, ¹⁷³ and on ojas. ¹⁷⁴ He was acquainted with Keśava's *Siddhamantra* and Vopadeva's *Siddhamantraprakāśa*, as is shown by his making use of the concept of udāsīnatva. ¹⁷⁵ The identity of medicinal substances is taken notice of; Hemādri's observations on this subject deviate frequently from those of his predecessors; ¹⁷⁶ vernacular names are not mentioned. ¹⁷⁷

Astronomy was one of the sciences to which Hemādri felt attracted. He discusses at length which months make up a particular season and rejects Suśruta's views. In his opinion the season called vasanta comprises the months Phālguna and Caitra when the saṃkrānti of Pisces occurs in the beginning of Phālguna, but it is composed of Caitra and Vaiśākha when the saṃkrānti takes places at the end of Phālguna, etc. 178

Hemādri is evasive with regard to the Buddhist elements in the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya*. ¹⁷⁹ Remarks on the text and its variants are almost absent.

The following authorities and works are quoted or referred to by Hemādri: 180 ācārya (Sū.4.25; 7.48), ¹⁸¹ Arunadatta (Sū.7.41ab), Astāngahrdaya (Sū.1.1), Astāngasamgraha (Sū.1.1), Aśvinau (Ci.3.166cd-167ab; 5.33cd-34), ¹⁸² Ātreya (Ci.5.33cd-34), ¹⁸³ Āvurvedaprakāśa (Sū.6.105cd; 10.17-19; Ci.1.19cd-20), ¹⁸⁴ Bāspacandra (Sū.3.11-14; 6.112cd-113ab and 122cd-125ab), Bhattārakahariścandra (Sū.7.48), 185 Bheda (Sū.7.55cd-56ab; 7.65 and 73; 8.28), Bhrgu (Ci.3.167cd-169ab), 186 Brahmadeva (Sū. 7.40-41ab), Brhaspati (Sū.7.22cd-26), 187 Candranandana (Sū.7.40-41ab), Caraka (passim), Caturvargacintāmani (Sū.1.1), Cikitsākalikā (Sū.6.160; 16.1), Dalhana (Sū. 7.40-4 lab), dhanvantarīyāḥ (Sū.19.20cd-24ab), dhannaśāstra (Sū.2.1-3), Gautama (Sū.7.22cd-26), ¹⁸⁸ Hariścandra (Sū.1.1; 6.75cd-78), ¹⁸⁹ Hārīta (Sū.1.1; 6.63cd-64ab and 75cd-78), Indu (Sū.7.40-41ab), Jaijjata (Sū.1.1; 2.12cd; 6.75cd-78 and 79cd; 7.40-41ab; 8.28), jyotihśāstra (Sū.3.1-2; 5.6-8ab), 190 Kapila (Sū.1.15cd-16ab), Kāśyapa (Sū.3.1-2; 5.6-8ab), Khāraṇādi, 191 Mādhavakara (Sū.8.28), 192 Mādhavakāra (Sū.6.75cd-78, 81, 97cd-98ab, 99cd, 137cd-138, 193 161cd-163ab; 194 7.40-41ab), 195 Manu (Sū.2.5cd-6ab), Panditakeśava (Sū.6.105cd), 196 Parāśara (Sū.9.21; 13.15), 197 Rasā yurveda (Sū.7.74), Rugviniścaya (Ni.1.3d-4ab; 2.53ab, 66cd-67ab, 74cd-76ab; ¹⁹⁸ 3.16cd-17ab; 6.35), ¹⁹⁹ Samgraha (passim), ²⁰⁰ satkāryavādinah (Sū.1.1), saugatāḥ (Sū.7.77), Śaunaka (Ni.1.23cd-24ab), 201 Siddhayoga (Ci.1.19cd-20, 26cd-27ab, 47; 1.54cd-55ab, twice; 1.59, 62-63, 64-65ab; 1.66cd-67ab, twice; 1.70ab, 81cd-83, 94, 166ab; 2.42-44ab), ²⁰² smrti (Sū.2.1-3), Suśruta (passim), tantrāntara (Sū.1.1; 5.41; 6.75cd-78, 158, 160; 7.48; 11.37-39ab; 20.37-38; Ka.4.73; 203 6.8-9ab and 14d), ²⁰⁴ Vāgbhatācārya (Sū.1.1; 3.1-2; 6.5cd and 75cd-78), Vangasena (Sū.8.28; Ni.2.33cd; 5.13cd-15ab, 43cd-45ab, 57cd-58ab; Ci.1.1-2, 18-19ab, 23ab; 1.54cd-55ab, three quotations; 1.59, 62-63; 1.66cd-67ab, two quotations; 1.94, 99–101, 128, 129–130ab, 134cd–135, 150, 166ab, 171–172; 2.35ab, 42–44ab,

44cd-45ab, 50; 3.10ab, 31-33ab, 42cd-44ab, 63cd-67ab, 80, 166cd-167ab; 4.8-9, 20cd-22, 55cd-56ab, 60ab; 5.3-4ab, 25cd-27, 33ab, 33cd-34, 52cd-53; 6.32cd-33, 47cd-49ab, 54cd-55, 57cd-58ab, 59cd, 60-67, 68, 69-72ab, 72cd-74, 82cd-83ab, 83cd-85ab; 7.104cd-107ab), 205 vedavādinaḥ (Sū.7.77), 206 Videhādhipa (Sū.7.22cd-26), 207 Viśvāmitra (Sū.5.11-12), vrddhavaidyāḥ (Ci.3.114-118ab; Ka.6.14cd), Vṛnda (Sū.5.76-77ab; 19.38cd-41ab; Ni.2.53cd; Ka.2.29-30ab; 3.14-14; 6.17cd-18), 208 and Yogaratna (Ci.3.31cd-32, 63cd-67ab, 68-69, 85cd, 166cd-167ab, 167cd-169ab; 4.6cd-7; 5.25cd-27 and 58cd-60; 6.17cd-21, 43cd, 60-67, 68, 72cd-74; 7.104cd-107ab), 209

Works quoted without any reference ²¹⁰ are the *Dhanvantarī yan ighaņṭu* (Sū.6. 128cd–129ab), ²¹¹ *Medinīkośa* (Sū.6.42), ²¹² *Śārn gadharasaṇ hitā* (Sū.5.76–77ab), ²¹³ *Siddhasāra* (Ci.2.42–44ab; ²¹⁴ 6.17cd–21), ²¹⁵ *Siddhayoga* (Ci.5.10cd–11), ²¹⁶ Vangasena (Ci.1.81cd–83; ²¹⁷ 6.17cd–21), ²¹⁸ and *Viśvaprakāśakośa* (Sū.6.42). ²¹⁹

Hemādri is quoted or referred²²⁰ to in Bhānuji Dīkṣita's commentary on the Amarakoṣa, Gopāla's commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, Gulrājśarmamiśra's Viśi-khānupraveśavijñāna and commentary on the Āyurvedaprakāśa, Kṛṣṇadatta's commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, the Kusumāvalī on the Siddhayoga, ²²¹ Lakṣmīrāma's commentary on the Siddhabheṣajamaṇimālā, ²²² Nṛṣiṃhakavi's Vāgbhaṭamaṇdana, ²²³ Priyavrat Śaṛṇnā's auto-commentary on his Dravyaguṇasūtra, ²²⁴ Śivadatta's auto-commentary on the Śivakoṣa, ²²⁵ the Tāmbūlakalpasaṃgraha, Tāmbūlamañjarī, and Yogaratnākara. ²²⁶

Hemādri²²⁷ was a brāhmaṇa of Vatsagotra, ²²⁸ son of Kāmadeva, grandson of Vāsudeva, and great-grandson of Vāmana. ²²⁹ The year of his birth may have been A.D. 1193 or 1194. ²³⁰

Hemādri is well known as the author of the Caturvargacintāmaṇi, ²³¹ a large encyclopaedia of ancient religious rites and observances, divided into four parts: (1) Vratakhaṇḍa, on religious fasts and observances, (2) Dānakhaṇḍa, on gifts, (3) Tīnthakhaṇḍa, on pilgrimages to holy places, and (4) Mokṣakhaṇḍa, on the path to final deliverance. A fifth part, in the form of an appendix called Pariśeṣakhaṇḍa, consists of voluminous treatises on the setting up and dedication of images of the deities (devatāpratiṣṭhā), offerings to the manes (śrāddha), the determination of the proper times and seasons for the performance of religious rites (kālanirṇaya), lakṣaṇasamuccaya, and atonement (prāyaścitta). ²³² The Caturvargacintāmaṇi is a standard work, ²³³ replete with information and quotations; it is full of discussions which cannot be well understood without thorough acquaintance with the numerous rules of the Mīmāṇisā. ²³⁴ Besides the Caturvargacintāmaṇi and Āyurvedarasāyana, Hemādri wrote²³⁵ the Hemādriprayoga, ²³⁶ Śrāddhapaddhati, ²³⁷ Tristhalīvidhi, ²³⁸ and a commentary, called Kaivalyadīpikā, on Vopadeva's Muktāphala. ²³⁹

Vopadeva, ²⁴⁰ a friend and protégé of Hemādri, wrote several works at the encouragement of the latter.

Hemādri describes himself in the *Caturvargacintāmaṇi* as being in charge of the records (sarvaśrīkaraṇaprabhu) of Mahādeva (1260 or 1261–1271),²⁴¹ one of the Yādava kings of Devagiri. ²⁴² He is referred to in the colophons as samastakaraṇādhīśvara of Mahādeva and as a very learned man (sakalavidyāviśārada). ²⁴³

The introductory verses of the Āyurvedarasāyana, written after the Caturvargacintāmaņi, 244 inform us that Hemādri was at that time in charge of the state records 245 of Mahādeva's successor, Rāmacandra 246 (1271–1309). 247 The Thānā plate of Rāmacandra, dated A.D. 1272, recording the grant of a village to a group of brāhmaṇas, makes mention of Hemādri in the same sense, namely as the foremost minister and as the one in charge of the state records. 248

Hemādri is described as a pious man who fed daily a number of brāhmaṇas. He was not only a man of learning himself, but also a generous patron to scholars. His name has remained popular in the Marāṭha country, where he is remembered as Hemāḍpant and associated with numerous temples of a particular style, called Hemāḍpantī. He is, rightly or wrongly, said to have introduced the Moḍīform of writing, current in Mahārāṣtra. ²⁴⁹

The Hemādri who wrote the Lakṣaṇaprakāśa²50 is different from the author of the Caturvargacintāmaṇi and Āyurvedarasāyana; he was a son of Īśvarasūri and may belong to the fifteenth century. 251

Probably the same Hemādri, also known as a son of Īśvarasūri, wrote a commentary, called Raghuvaņiśadarpaṇa, on Kālidāsa's famous poem. ²⁵²

HIMA DATTA or Sarvahitamitradatta is sometimes mentioned as a commentator on the Aṣṭāṅgahrdaya. ²⁵³

An anonymous commentary called HRDAYABODHIKĀ is recorded in some MSS catalogues, 254

The HRDYĀ is an anonymous commentary, which mentions the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha, Indu, and (Aruṇadatta's) Sarvāṅgasundarī. It is quoted by Śrīdasapaṇḍita²⁵⁵ and Parameśvara, and referred to in Śaɪṇkara's Lalitā. ²⁵⁶ N.S. Mooss mentions particular interpretations of the author of the Hṛdyā, ²⁵⁷ who is one of the few to admit that Vāgbhaṭa was a Buddhist. ²⁵⁸

The author of the *Hṛdyā*, who hailed from Kerala, is posterior to Arunadatta and anterior to Vāsudeva, Śrīdāsa's teacher. ²⁵⁹

INDU was the author of two commentaries with the title ŚaŚILEKHĀ, the one on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā, the other on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. 260 These commentaries are closely related to each other, as can easily be seen when they are compared. The Śaśilekhā on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha follows the wording of that on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya wherever both treatises agree with each other. A striking differene between them is the paucity of quotations in the commentary on the Aṣṭaṅgahṛdaya, if the references to the Saṃgraha are disregarded.

Authorities and works quoted or referred to in the edited parts of the Śaśilekhā on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdayasaṇḥitā²⁶¹ are: ²⁶² Bharadvāja (Sū.1.1), Bhaṭṭārahariścandra (Ka.6. 14ab), ²⁶³ Bhaṭṭāraka (Sū.7.45cd-46), ²⁶⁴ Bhoja (Ka.6.5-6), Cākṣuṣeṇasaṃḥitā (Ka.6. 14ab), Caraka (Sū.1.4cd-5ab; 7.45cd-46; Śā.3.8; Ci.19.28-30; Ka.1.44; 6.11cd-12, 14ab, 29-30ab), carakavidaḥ (Ci.3.60), Kābandhaka (Ka.1.44), ²⁶⁵ Kāṣyapa (Ka.1.44),

670 5 Vāgbhaṭa

Kharaṇāda (Sū.29.32cd-33), *Kharaṇādasaṃhitā* (Ka.6.14ab), Kṛṣṇātreya (Ka.6.14ab), Śālihotra (Sū.3.1), *Saṃgraha* (often), ²⁶⁶ Skandarakṣita (Sū.23.17), ²⁶⁷ Suśruta (Sū.1.4cd-5ab; 19.85-87; Ka.4.26cd-27ab), suśrutādhyāyinaḥ (Ka.6.14ab), *Vaidehasaṃhitā* (Sū.23.17), ²⁶⁸ vṛddhavaidyāḥ (Ka.6.14ab), and Vyāsa (Sū.2.27). A quotation from Pārameśvara (Ci.19.98) and one from Arunadatta²⁶⁹ are undoubtedly later interpolations.

Authorities and works quoted or referred to in the commentary on the Astāńgasamgraha²⁷⁰ are: Agniveśa (Sū.1.13cd-15), Amara (U.50.109-111), asmadguravah (Sū. 9.7-15; Ni.1.8), Ātreya (Sū.17.3; Śā.3.3 and 17), Bharadvāja (Sū.1.2; U.36.8), Bhattārahariścandra (Ni.2.4),²⁷¹ Bhattārahariścandra's Kharanādasamhitā (Ka.8.17; U.50.150-153), Bhattāraka (Sū.9.7-15; Ni.2.4), Bhoja ([U.31.54-55;] 36.8 [and 9]), Caksusyena (Ka.8.17), Caraka (Sū.1.16-18; 3.8cd-12ab; 9.7-15; Ni.2.89-102; Śā.3.8; 5.15; Ci.6.43–44; 7.5–8; 10.28; 15.4; Ka.8.17 and 22; U.9.35–37; 43.56), carakagrantha (Ka.8.17), carakavidah (Ci.4.71-74), Catuhsasti (U.15.2), [Dalhana's Nibandhasamgraha (U.37.10), 272 Dāruvāhi(n) (Ni. 1.19-31; U.1.22; 5.7-8; 40.32-33), Dhanvantari (Sū.36.5; Śā.3.8; 7.23; [U.16.5-6]; U.41.60),²⁷³ [Gayadāsa (U.43.3-4),1²⁷⁴ Hrdaya (Sū.7.107-110; Śā.3.37; Ka.4.39), Janaka (U.17.7; 40.34), Jātūkarna ([U.36.9;] 40.29-31), Jejjata²⁷⁵ ([Ni.2.3;] Ci.9.50 and 51-52; 23.40-42;²⁷⁶ [U.30.79 and 80; 38.2-6a;] 39.35; [42.8 and 101-106; 43.3-4;] 46.83; [49.115 and 116: 50.2 and 18]), Kapilabala (Sū.20.17), [Kairalī (U.8.40, 57, 58, 59, 60),]²⁷⁷ kāmaśāstra (U.50.130), ²⁷⁸ Kapilabala (Sū.20.18), Kāśyapa (U.37.7; 48.72), Kautilya (Sū.8.25cd-31; U.40.83), Khandakāpya (Śā.3.5), Kharanāda(samhitā) (Sū.1.16-18 and 19: Ka.8.17: U.49.309-325: 50.150-153), Kośa (Sū.2.17cd-18ab), Krsnātreva (Sū.1.16-18, twice; Ka.8.17), [Nandin (U.43.3-4),]²⁷⁹ Nimi (U.15.2), Parāśara (Sū. 1.16-18; 17.26; 21.14-17), Pāthyakāra (U.8.59), ²⁸⁰ [Prabandhasamgraha (U.43.3-4; 44.77), 1²⁸¹ Puskalāvata (U.30.11), *Rājanighantu* (U.43.56), ²⁸² [Sārakrt (U.38.55), 1²⁸³ Saunaka (Ci.3.64cd-65), [Surasavīra (U.43.3-4),]²⁸⁴ Suśruta (Sū.1.13cd-15, 16-18, 21–22; Śā.215; 7.20; Ci.21.22–25; Ka.8.17; U.2.24 [; 30.85–86; 43.3–4]), Suśrutatīkā ([U.40.75; 42.90-94;] 50.109-111), Urabhra (U.36.8), Uśanas (U.70.88), Vāgbhata (Sū.1.16-18; 17.26-28; Śā.6.37-38; Ka.8.17), Vaidehīsamhitā (Sū.32.14), 285 [Varāha (U.43.3-4),] vāstuvidyā (Sū.3.111cd-112), Vātsyāyana (U.50.131), Viśvāmitra (U.44.2), Vrddhakāśyapa (U.36.8), and vrddhavaidyāh (Ka.8.17).

The Kāśikāvṛtti is quoted anonymously (Sū.6.8–11ab). The verses on paribhāṣā at the end of the commentary on the Kalpasthāna²⁸⁶ refer to the views of Bhaṭṭāraharicandra in his *Kharaṇāda(saṃhitā)* (45), Caraka (24, 25, 27, 40, 55, 58, 61, 70), Dṛḍhabala (25, 26), Kharaṇāda (45, 47, 80), Kṛṣṇātreya (5, 50), and Suśruta (17, 21, 79).

Indu is quoted or referred to by Anantakumāra, ²⁸⁷ Hemādri, ²⁸⁸ the author of the *Kairalī* commentary on the *Aṣṭāngahṛdaya*, ²⁸⁹ Nīlamegha, ²⁹⁰ Niścalakara, ²⁹¹ Parameśvara, ²⁹² Śaṃkara, ²⁹³ Śrīdāsapaṇḍita, ²⁹⁴ and the author of the *Tantrayukti* and its commentary. ²⁹⁵

One of the characteristic features of Indu's commentaries consists of the frequent occurrence of strings of synonyms of medicinal plants, obviously taken from some nighantu. ²⁹⁶ P.V. Sharma is convinced that Indu was acquainted with the Astānganighantu and quotes from it, because some of the verses he cites are found

exclusively in that work. ²⁹⁷ The evidence he collected is not conclusive in my view, since the majority of Indu's quotations are definitely not from the *Aṣṭānganighaṇṭu*. A considerable percentage of them forms part of the *Dhanvantarīyanighaṇṭu*, ²⁹⁸ which, however, does not solve the problem of Indu's source, as some plants have different names or are not mentioned at all in that work. ²⁹⁹ Some correspondences between Indu's citations and verses occurring in Candranandana's *Madanādinighaṇṭu* are neither persuasive. ³⁰⁰ For these reasons it remains obscure which nighaṇṭu was put to use by Indu, unless he borrowed from more than one. ³⁰¹

The two Śaśilekhās, in particular the one on the Aṣṭāngasaṃgraha, are replete with information on Vāgbhaṭa's materia medica. The Śaśilekhā on the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya is richer in this respect than Aruṇadatta's commentary. Indu almost never omits to mention one or more synonyms of items of the materia medica occurring in Vāgbhaṭa's works. His interpretations disagree with those by Aruṇadatta in many cases. 302 Valuable are his elucidations concerning plants and other medicinal substances. 303 Vernacular names are also given, 304 in particular those current in Kaśmīr. 305 Other regions to which he refers are Madhyadeśa, 306 Śakadeśa, 307 Southern India, 308 and Uttarāpatha. 309 Some of his identifications are particularly interesting. 310

Indu makes some noteworthy remarks about the thirty-six types of diarrhoea (atisāra), which may occur as a complication (vyāpad) of a treatment with clysters. ³¹¹ Important is his characterization of a disorder called pramīlaka, amlapitta, orpittavisūcikā. ³¹²

The Śaśilekhā on the Astāngasaṃgraha (ad U.37.35) contains a rather long series of verses, quoted from an unknown source, on diseases of the feet and some other disorders, together with their treatment. The disorders dealt with are vipādikā, kaṇṭakavedha (wounds by sharp thorns), pādadāha (burning feet), pārṣṇivyathā (painful heels), dehasphuṭana (a cracking skin), atisveda (excessive perspiration), dehadaurgandhya (a bad bodily smell), and vaidyutānaladāha (burns in persons struck by lightning).

Grammar is not one of Indu's favourite subjects, ³¹³ which makes his Śaśilekhā on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya quite distinct from Aruṇadatta's commentary. Technical terms derived from philosophy are rarely used. ³¹⁴

Interpretations by predecessors, whether commentators on Vāgbhaṭa's works or on the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, are repeatedly referred to or quoted. ³¹⁵ In general, Indu does not borrow extensively from Candranandana, but occasionally he may be indebted to him. ³¹⁶

Variants of Vāgbhaṭa's text are mentioned, 317 as well as differences between the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya and Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. 318

Very important is a series of 119 verses, appended to the end of the commentary on the Kalpasthāna of both Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya and Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha. These verses deal with technical rules (paribhāṣā) on the preparation of medicines, in particular on the intricate subject of the ratios of the ingredients of compound drugs. They are borrowed from an unknown source³¹⁹ and are mainly based on views expounded by Caraka, as declared by Indu in his introductory remarks. Divergent opinions of other authorites are repeatedly referred to.

The verses on paribhāsā of Indu's commentaries were edited separately, translated

into English, and annotated by N.S. Mooss, ³²⁰ who expressed as his opinion that Indu possessed a thorough knowledge of traditional practices prevalent in Kerala. This view need not be endorsed, as Indu merely refers to practices adopted by some physicians, without specifying a particular region. ³²¹

Indu is one of the few commentators who accept Vāgbhaṭa's syncretistic attitude and do not cloak the Buddhist elements in his works. His remarks on 'worship of the deities' (daivatapūjā; A.h.Ci.1.177) mention, as examples of these deities, not only Hari and Hara, but also Āryāvalokita, Āryatārā, Parṇaśabarī, and Aparājitā. 322 Indu reads Jina and Jinasuta in a verse of the Astāngahṛdaya (Ci.19.98), where these names are suppressed by Aruṇadatta and many editors, who replace them by Śiva and Śivasuta. 323 He interprets Jina as the Buddha, Jinasuta 324 as Avalokiteśa and other deities. 325 Neither is Tārā passed over in silence, as in Aruṇadatta's commentary; she is recognized as a Buddhist deity. 326

Indu argues that Ratnaketu (A.s.U.1.19) is a Buddhist dhāri η ī. He was also acquainted with the Māyūrī (A.s.U.1.19). 327

Indu's own religion may have been a mixture of Hinduism and Buddhism, as is suggested by his naming both Manu and Buddha as the founders of a hitopadeśaśāstra, which delivers from undesirable states of mind caused by rajas and tamas.³²⁸ On the other hand it should be noticed that the mangalas of his commentaries are of a Hindu type. ³²⁹

Next to Indu, the commentator on Vāgbhaṭa's works, an author of the same name, who composed a nighaṇṭu, 330 is known from quotations in Bhānuji Dīkṣita's commentary on the *Amarakoṣa*, 331 Jīānavimalagaṇi's commentary on Maheśvara's Śabdabhedaprakāśa, 332 Kṣīrasvāmin's commentary on the *Amarakoṣa*, 333 Mallinātha's commentary on the *Amarakoṣa*, 334 Nārāyaṇa Vidyāvinoda's commentary on the *Amarakoṣa*, 335 Śivadatta's auto-commentary on the *Śivakoṣa*, 336 and Śrīvallabhagani's commentary on Hemacandra's *Nighantuśeṣa*.

N.N. Das Gupta ³³⁸ may have been the first to suggest that the commentator and the lexicographer of the same name are one and the same person. The only grounds adduced by N.N. Das Gupta are the medical nature of the commentaries and the nighantu, combined with the fact that Indu is not a commonplace name amongst medical writers. Some later authorities tend to accept the proposed identity, basing themselves on the anonymous definitions of a pharmacopoeial nature, obviously quoted from some nighantu, in Indu's commentaries. ³³⁹

The identity is rejected by P.V. Sharma ³⁴⁰ for chronological reasons. The lexicographer, quoted by Kṣīrasvāmin in the eleventh century, should be distinguished from the commentator who, in P.V. Sharma's view, belongs to the thirteenth century.

There are, however, more compelling grounds for regarding the lexicographer as entirely different from the commentator. The quotations from a nighantu in the commentaries are, to be sure, not from a single, identifiable medical lexicon. Since these citations agree in a large number of cases with the *Dhanvantarīyanighantu*, it seems reasonable to assume that the commentator Indu did not compose a nighantu himself, which would otherwise certainly have been used in his interpretations of Vāgbhata's texts. Another argument for discarding the identity is furnished by the absence of agree-

ments between the quotations from the *Indunighantu* and those found in Indu's commentaries. The verses cited as coming from the *Indunighantu* do not form part of the *Dhanvantarīyanighantu* or *Aṣṭānganighantu*, which indicates that this *Indunighantu* is distinct from Indu's source or sources in his commentaries. Consequently, the identity of the lexicographer and the commentator can be maintained only on the assumption that Indu wrote a nighantu after completing his commentaries, and, moreover, if the chronological position of the *Indunighantu* does not conflict with that of the *Śaśilekhā*s.

The earliest quotations from the *Indunighantu* occur in Kṣīrasvāmin's *Amarako-sodghātana*, which dates from the first half of the twelfth century,³⁴¹ which implies that the former cannot be earlier than the second half of the eleventh century.

The hypothesis, also formulated for the first time by N.N. Das Gupta,³⁴² that Indu, the commentator, may prove to be identical with Indukara, the father of the Mādhava who wrote the Mādhavanidāna, is not based on any evidence, and was rightly rejected by D.Ch. Bhattacharyya,³⁴³ because Indukara and Mādhava were residents of Bengal, whereas Indu was a native of Kaśmīr.

The Indian tradition makes Indu a direct pupil of Vāgbhaṭa. This tradition, in particular current among the physicians of Kerala, alleges that Vāgbhaṭa, accompanied by his favourite pupils Indu and Jejjaṭa, came to Kerala in order to spend the latter part of his life there. ³⁴⁴ A salutatory verse in the introductory portion of Nīlamegha's *Tantrayuktivicāra* refers to Indu and Jejjaṭa as disciples of Vāgbhaṭa. ³⁴⁵

Indu's references to Vāgbhaṭa as ācārya³⁴⁶ have been interpreted as pointing in the same direction, ³⁴⁷ in spite of the fact that it is common practice among commentators to mention well-known ancient authorities in this way. ³⁴⁸

In my opinion, it is very unlikely that Indu studied with Vāgbhaṭa himself, 349 because Indu observes, in the introduction to both versions of the Śaśilekhā, that Vāgbhaṭa's words had become obscured by bad commentaries, which led him to write a new one. At least one generation of commentators must therefore have preceded Indu. One should also remember that Indu cites Jejjaṭa, which excludes his being a contemporary.

The identity of Indu's teacher, to whom he refers as my guru, remains unknown. 350 Indu's date is a problematic issue for several reasons, one of these being the unsatisfactory editions of his commentaries. The editions available, in particular those of the Śaśilekhā on the Aṣṭāṅgasamgraha, present a large number of passages between brackets, which probably indicate interpolations. 351 Other parts, not placed between brackets by the editors, should also be regarded as not belonging to the original text, since they derive from works by authors who are definitely posterior to Indu. A study of the quotations from Indu in later commentaries might throw some more light on the genuine text of the Śaśilekhās.

Indu's chronological position is elucidated by his quoting Jejjata, who lived in the seventh or eighth century. Important too are the quotations from the *Dhanvantarī-yanighantu*, dating from the period A.D. 1000–1100, although it should be taken into consideration that this work is not mentioned by name, which means that Indu may quote from an early version of it, or from some other lexicon. The most important clue to his date consists of the citations from the *Indumatī* in Niścalakara's *Ratnaprabhā*,

which can for the larger part be traced in the Śaśilekhā on the Astāngasangraha. 352

The collected evidence establishes that Indu lived before the latter half of the twelfth century. The terminus post quem is provided by the quotations from Jejjata and the *Dhanvantarīyanighanṭu*, the terminus ante quem by Niścala's references. ³⁵³ Some authors prefer placing Indu much later. P.V. Sharma ³⁵⁴ makes him belong to the thirteenth century, being convinced that he quotes the *Medinīkoṣa*, ³⁵⁵ a lexicon dated by him to the twelfth century. ³⁵⁶ In addition, P.V. Sharma regards a quotation by Hemādri as an indication that Indu is posterior to Aruṇadatta. ³⁵⁷ Finally, he supposes that Maheśvara's *Viśvaprakāśa*, dating from the beginning of the twelfth century, ³⁵⁸ influenced Indu ³⁵⁹

Indu's native country was in all probability Kaśmīr; the numerous references to this country and the local names of medicinal plants current there are strongly in support of this. 360

 \bar{I} ŚVARASENA is sometimes regarded as a commentator on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṇ-hitā 361

JEJJATA is sometimes regarded as a commentator on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdayasaṃhitā. 362

The KAIRALĪ is an elaborate commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Aṣṭāṅgahṛ-dayasaṃhitā. ³⁶³ Other parts of the treatise are not covered, as stated by the author himself in the introductory verses.

The author quotes many earlier works and authorities, but also expresses his own opinion on diverse subjects. ³⁶⁴

The metres employed by $V\bar{a}$ gbhaṭa are indicated in a number of instances. ³⁶⁵ Variants of the text are occasionally recorded. ³⁶⁶

The Buddhist elements in Vāgbhaṭa's work are sometimes accepted as such, ³⁶⁷ sometimes re-interpreted in agreement with Hindu views. ³⁶⁸

The author's main authority on the identity of medicinal substances and their names is obviously the Mañjarī, i.e., Bhiṣagārya's Abhidhānamañjarī, which is profusely quoted. No studies are available on the other sources of the Kairalī. A superficial examination shows that there are numerous disagreements between the Kairalī and Aruṇadatta's Sarvāngasundarā on the identity of medicinal plants. ³⁶⁹ It may well be that the author of the Kairalī was mostly influenced by earlier commentators who lived in Kerala. The Malayāļam names of diseases and medicinal substances are not infrequently recorded. ³⁷⁰

Authorities and works quoted or referred to are: Agniveśa (40.60–62 and 65–66), Ālambāyana (35.16, 20, 45ab), Amara (fifteen quotations), Aruṇadatta (1.13ab and 26ab; 6.5cd–6; 9.40ab; 10.1–2ab and 5; 11.38ab; 13.31–32; 23.32; 25.57cd–58ab; 28.37; 30.32; 33.1–5ab, 19, 27cd–28; 35.7cd–8ab; 36.90–92; 40.25, 30cd–31ab, 37, 48–58, 59), Ātreya (34.44cd–49ab; 40.59; 40.60–62: Punarvasu Ātreya; 40.78–80), ³⁷¹ Bhāradvāja (31.8), Bheḍa (40.59 and 88), Bhoja (21.39ab; 26.50cd–52ab; 28.1–4, 6, 17cd–18ab; 31.3, 8, 9ab), Caraka (1.5; 4.43; 6.1cd–2ab; 7.37; 17.6cd–7ab; 23, intr.; 23.1–3 and 3d–7c; 24.60; 33.1–3, 4–7, 12–15ab; 39.55–56; 40.12ab, 83, 84, 88),

Catuhsasti (12.1; 16.63cd-64), 372 Cyavana (39.39), Dandanātha (1.8), Dhanvantari (about sixty quotations), 373 granthantara (5.54cd), Harita (40, intr.), Hiranyaksi ya (1.11cd-13b), Indu (1.11cd-13ab; 5.46cd-47ab, 52, 54ab; 6.2-5; 8.21-22 and 24; 10.1-2ab, 10ab, 10cd-11; 11.12c and 49ab; 12.1 and 6-7ab; 13.20-22; 15.6-7ab; 16.44-45; 21.1-3ab and 37-38ab; 23.3d-7c; 24.18; 31.2cd; 33.1-5ab; 36.93; 37.14cd and 20; 40.32cd), Jajjata³⁷⁴ (39.97–98ab; 40.1–2ab, 36, 38, 39–40), Jatūkarna (31.9ab; 40.59 and 88), Kāmasūtra (33.1-5ab; 40.41), Kāśyapa (32.5cd-6a), Keśava (5.42cd-43ab; 29.2cd-3; 32.9-10),³⁷⁵ Kṣārapāni (25.23), laukikāḥ (6.1cd-2a), Mañjarī (1.9 twice; 1.13; 2.38; 11.36; 13.44, 45, 54-55ab; 13.58-59ab, twice; 13.64cd-65; 16.12, 24, 51cd-52, 55; 18.8-10ab, 12, 26cd-30ab, 55cd-58; 20.5cd-7ab; 21.12cd-13ab; 22.65-67 and 88-89; 24.24-25ab; 24.50cd-57ab, twice; 25.48 and 61; 27.12cd-16ab; 28.40; 30.38; 32.3, 9-10, 16, 22, 26; 33, intr.; 33.1-5ab; 37.13ab; 40.14. 32cd, 48–58), ³⁷⁶ Nagna jit (35.16cd), *Nānārthārnavasamksepa* (40.1–2ab), ³⁷⁷ Nimi (8.21-22, twice; 9.17cd-18a; 10.12, 21cd-22ab, 24; 11.14-18 and 25cd-27; 12.1; 13.14cd-16ab and 33; 22.26; 30.30), Pāthyakāra (1.9ab; 5.54cd; 9.11cd-13ab and 20; 13.37; 18.20cd-21; 22.90-94; 27.16ab), ³⁷⁸ Punarvasu (35.16cd), ³⁷⁹ Puṣkalāvata (26.22ab and 50cd-52ab), Ratirahasya (33.27cd-28, 32, 49), Samgraha (very often), Sārakrt (1.1; 13.66; 19.1–3ab; 26.46cd-47; 30.10cd and 32; 33.50),³⁸⁰ śāstrāntara (1.7cd-8a; 8.1-2; 10.26; 11.36-37ab and 5lab; 13.48ab; 18.50cd-5lab; 21.35cd; 22.108-109; 23.12-15ab; 26.6 and 31; 27.12cd-16ab; 28.1-4; 29.12-13, 18cd-19, 22. 23-25; 30.8cd-9; 31.25cd-26ab; 32.33; 381 33.14cd-15ab; 35.3 and 16cd), 382 Sauśruta (often), Śresthadatta (31, intr.), 383 Suśruta (often), tantrāntara (2.34cd-35ab; 8.1-2; 22.50cd; 26.4ab), Urabhra (31.8), Vaideha (16.63cd-64; 384 35.16cd), 385 Vaijayantī (31, intr.), Vaitaraņa (36.16cd-17), Vāmadeva (8.15; 11.14-18; 26.22ab), Videhādhipa (13.26-27), 386 and Vrddhakās yapa (31.8).

A Malayālam commentary is also quoted (13.66).

One of the anonymous quotations is from Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya. 387
The quotations from the Kairalī in Indu's Śaśilekhā are without any doubt interpolations.

The editor of the *Kairalī* asserts that it was written by a physician who belonged to one of the aṣṭavaidya families of Kerala and was born in Panasāndolikā.³⁸⁸ Some claim that Plāntōṭ Mūs was its author,³⁸⁹ which is improbable,³⁹⁰ unless there were two authors of this name.³⁹¹

The quotations from Keśava's *Kalpadrukośa*, the longest synonymic lexicon of Indian literature, composed in A.D. 1660/61, ³⁹² prove that the *Kairalī* cannot be earlier than the end of the seventeenth century.

KŖṣṇASENAMALLIKA wrote a commentary called VāGBHAṬĀRTHAKAUMUDĪ. 393 This commentary is quoted in the footnotes to Kuṇṭe and Navre's edition of the Aṣṭā-ngaḥṛdayasaṇḥitā. 394

MANGALAGIRI SÜRI, of Gelavarigala family and Ātreyagotra, son of Jagannātha, is regarded as a commentator on the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya³⁹⁵ by B. Rama Rao. He wrote a commentary, called Sarvāṅgasaṇjīvanī, on a Kalpasthāna, which B. Rama Rao sup-

poses to be the Kalpasthāna of the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya More probably, this Kalpasthāna is Bharadvāja's Bheṣajakalpa, also called Bheṣajakalpasthāna, because Maṅgalagiri is known as a commentator on the Bheṣajakalpa and Bharadvāja's Rasapradīpikā. A medical treatise by Maṅgalagiri with the title Sūtrasthāna is, as born out by its contents, not a commentary on Vāgbhata's Sūtrasthāna. 396

MANODAYĀDITYABHATŢA is recorded as the author of a commentary called MANODAYĀDITYABHATTĪYA. 397 This author may be identical with Udayāditya.

NARAHARI(BHAṬṬA), also called Bhaṭṭanarahari and Nṛṣiṇihakavi, was the author of the Vāgbhatamandana or Vāgbhatakhaṇdanamandana. 398

This treatise, written in defense of Vāgbhaṭa and his Aṣṭāngahṛdaya, refutes the charges levelled against this famous author and his work by someone called Sauravidyādhara. The views of opponent and defender are expounded and quotations from numerous earlier authorities serve to support the arguments.

No information is available on Sauravidyādhara, who may have criticized Vāgbhaṭa in writing³⁹⁹ or in a public debate, probably with Nṛṣiṃhakavi.

The Vāgbhaṭamanḍana, composed in prose, is divided into twenty-eight chapters (prakaraṇa). The prose is preceded by seven introductory verses; the work ends with eight concluding verses. Many chapters (1–8, 10–11, 13–15, 19, 22–23, 26–27) end with a verse in praise of Vāgbhaṭa; stanzas depreciating Sauravidyādhara and eulogizing Vāgbhaṭa are interspersed among the prose of a number of chapters.

The mangala is addressed to Siva. 400

Each chapter opens with Vidyādhara's objections against a particular point of view found in the *Astāngahrdaya* and the arguments adduced in support of these criticisms. Narahari then engages in a polemic with his opponent, exposes his own opinions, and turns down the criticisms, defending Vāgbhata by a wealth of quotations. ⁴⁰¹

The verses of the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya* which are under attack and discussed by both parties are: Sū.1.1 (ch.1); 3.7cd–8ab (ch.2); 3.26cd–27ab (ch.3); 3.30 and 32cd–33ab (ch.4); 3.55cd (ch.5); 5.24 (ch.6); 6.8ab (ch.7); 7.48 (ch.8); 7.73 (ch.9); 7.52 (ch.10); 9.20 (ch.11); 12.19cd–22ab, 24cd, 25cd–26ab, 22cd (ch.12); 13.33cd–34ab (ch.13); 13.37–41 (ch.14); 14.31cd–33 (ch.15); 16.15cd–16ab and 29cd–30ab (ch.16); 18.13–18ab (ch.17); 19.18–19 (ch.18); 26.1 (ch.19); ⁴⁰² Śā.1.1 and 2 (ch.20); 2.53 and 3.16ab (ch.21); 3.83–104 and 1.32 (ch.22); ⁴⁰³ Ni.1.2 and 5ab (ch.23); 2.50–51 (ch.24); 11. 32cd (ch.25); U.28.5cd (ch.26); ⁴⁰⁴ Ci.1.1 (ch.27); ⁴⁰⁵ Ka.1.1 and U.1.1 (ch.28). ⁴⁰⁶

Authorities and works quoted or referred to are: ⁴⁰⁷ Abhidhāna (25, ⁴⁰⁸ 87), ⁴⁰⁹ ācārya, ⁴¹⁰ Agniveśa (64, 107), Amarakośa (87), Aruṇadatta (6, 9, 68), asmadvāgbhatī-yanibandhana (86), Aṣtāṇgahṛdayadī pikā (56), Ātreya (10, 40), ⁴¹¹ (Bhagavadgītā) (3, 4, 5, 6), Bhāluki (74, 75), Bhāṣyakāra (101), ⁴¹² Bhāṣyakṛt (85), ⁴¹³ Bhaṭṭa (4, 5, 11, 17, 33, 40, 76, 92, 113), ⁴¹⁴ Bhaṭṭāra(ka)hariścandra (30, 52, 55, 65, 89, 94, 102, 106), ⁴¹⁵ Bhāvya (76), ⁴¹⁶ Bheḍa (21, 66, 114), Bhogīśvara (46, 51, 58, 84), ⁴¹⁷ Bhoja (27, 32, 66, 68, 74, 75, 81), Bopadeva (6, 12), (Brahmasūtra) (6), (Bṛhadāraṇyakopaniṣad) (3), (Cakradatta) (11), Caraka (passim), Cikitsāsiddhānta (41), Candrikā (106), ⁴¹⁸ (Palhana) (26), Dhanvantari (7, 43, 44, 45, 52, 58, 59, 68), ⁴¹⁹ Drdhabala (2, 13, 65,

66, 67, 69, 73, 96, 99, 100, 107), Gajakhaṇḍikā (70), 420 Gayadāsa (11, 24, 40, 41, 45, 49, 50, 52, 75, 76, 85, 86, 87, 93), Hariścandra (56), 421 Hārīta (70, 95, 96), Hemādri (86), Īśvarasena (106), Jaimini (17, 33, 44), Jatūkarṇa (103, 104), Jaijjaṭa/Jejjaṭa (26, 36, 39, 50, 52, 71, 75, 76, 85, 86, 97, 102, 111), jyotiḥśāstra (56), Kaiyaṭa (85), Kālidāsa (7, 81), Kapila (55), Kārttikakuṇḍa (97), Kāśyapa (36), (Kaṭhopaniṣad) (3), Kharanāda (56, 61, 74, 81, 82, 85, 87, 89, 92, 101, 103, 104, 106, 111, 113), Kṣāvapāṇi (85), (Kūrmapurāṇa) (4), Mādhavakara (97), (Mahābhārata) (81), Mahābhāṣya (85), (Mṛcchakaṭikā) (17), (Muṇḍakopaniṣad) (4), nāgārjunīyāḥ (71, 72, 85), Nibandhasaṇgraha (111, 112), (Pañcadaśī) 422 (5), Parāśara (28, 30, 70, 71, 95, 98), Punarvasu (61, 70), 423 Punarvasu Ātreya (64), 424 Phaṇidhara (58), 425 Phaṇīśvara (57, 78), 426 (Rgveda) (8), Sahasraphaṇin (58), 427 Śālihotra (56), Saṃgraha (7, 81), Suśruta (passim), suśrutanibandhalcṭaḥ (39), Taittirīyaśākhā (56), (Taittirīyasaṇhitā) (17), Tantrasāra (14), Vāgbhaṭa (passim), Vāgbhaṭaṭīkā (33, 37, 56, 93), Vāpyacandra (28, 65, 89, 97), Vidyādhara (passim), 428 Vṛddhasuśruta (32), Vṛddhavāgbhaṭa (65, 93, 94), and Wāsa (16, 81).

Nṛsiṃha defends $V\bar{a}gbhaṭa$ against the accusation of being sympathetic to Buddhism. 429

The author calls himself Nṛṣiṇṇhakavi in the concluding verses of his work. ⁴³⁰ The name of his father was Bhaṭṭaśiva, ⁴³¹ of Haritavaṃśa, who is described as a great scholar in all branches of learning. Nṛṣiṇṇha's teacher was Rāmakavīśvara, a jewel among those conversant with tarka and tantra. ⁴³² Another person, whose blessing is invoked, is Viṭṭhalapaṇḍita, praised as well acquainted with Caraka, Suśruta and the Astāṅgasamgraha. ⁴³³

Nṛsiṃha also wrote a commentary, called $D\bar{i}pik\bar{a}$, on the $Aṣṭ\bar{a}ngahṛdayasaṇhit\bar{a}$. This commentary is referred to in the $V\bar{a}gbhatamaṇdana$.

The latest authorities quoted by Nṛṣiṇṇhakavi are Hemādri and Vopadeva, who lived in the second half of the thirteenth century. The author's terminus ante quem cannot be determined with any certainty. K.R. Śrīkaṇṭhamūrti is inclined to assign him to the fifteenth century, because Bhāvamiśra's Bhāvaprakāśa, popular in the sixteenth century, is not referred to. 435

A commentary called PaÑCIKĀ, written by an author from Kerala, is quoted by Śrīdāsa in his $Hrdayabodhik\bar{a}$ and therefore earlier. 436

An anonymous Padārthacandrikāprabhā is recorded by A. Rahman. 437

PARAMEŚVARA wrote a commentary called VĀKYAPRADĪPIKĀ, ⁴³⁸ which probably covered all the sections of the *Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṇhitā*. ⁴³⁹

The Vākyapradīpikā on the Sūtrasthāna is written in a simple and lucid style. Authorities and works quoted or referred to are: Āgama (21.12; 22.6ab), (Ā)lambāyana (1.2), Amara (19.84), Amarasiṇha (28.31cd), Aruṇadatta (21.7cd–8ab; 23.16cd–17ab), 440 asmadguravalı (23.16cd–17ab), 441 Ātreya (maṅgala; 1.2), Bhālukī ya (26.5), Bharadvāja (1.2), Bhoja (26.7), Caraka (7.31), Dāsapaṇḍita (27.14–16ab), 442 dhānvantarīyālı (26.46cd–47; 29.7), Hārīta (1.2), Hāṭaka (23.16cd–17ab and 30cd–31ab;

26.6-7ab, 45cd-46ab, 54-55ab; 27.16cd-18ab), *Hṛdyā* and Hṛdyākāra (20.20-21ab and 23cd-24; 21.17cd-18; 22.3cd-4; 23.5-6, 8-9, 16cd-17ab, 19, 30cd-31ab; 25.35cd; 26.28cd-29ab; 27.1-2ab and 12-13), ⁴⁴³ Indu (26.1-4), Kāśyapa (1.2), Kṣārapāṇi (1.2), Nimi (1.2; 20.20-21ab), *Pāṭhya* and Pāṭhyakāra (6.106; 26.1-4, 13cd-15, 18, 38; 28.6ab), ⁴⁴⁴ *Saṃgraha* (often), ⁴⁴⁵ Sāralçt (26.16cd-17ab and 20-22ab; 30.50cd-52), ⁴⁴⁶ śāstrāntara (26.36), śruti (1.1), *Sundarī* (25.35cd; 26.1-4), ⁴⁴⁷ Suśruta (1.8.; 16.29; 30.8cd-20ab), *tantrāntara* (23.15-16), tantrāntarīyāḥ (19.38cd-41ab), *Vyākhyāsāra* (23.16cd-17ab and 22; 24.4-5 and 6cd-8; 25.1-2), ⁴⁴⁸ Vyāsa (2.27), and *Yogaśāstra* (2.1cd-3).

Occasionally, Parameśvara gives the Malayāḷam equivalents of technical terms and names of medicinal plants. ⁴⁴⁹ The author's views on the identity of medicinal plants are frequently referred to by N.S. Mooss. ⁴⁵⁰ Parameśvara often agrees with the author of the *Pāthya*, but, occasionally, his opinions are at variance. ⁴⁵¹

Parameśvara regards the apūrvavaidya of the opening verse of the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya as Maheśvara, but also considers the possibility that Buddha is meant and that the author was a Buddhist.

The colophons inform us that the author, dvijottama Parameśvara, ⁴⁵² lived in Aśvatthagrāma ⁴⁵³ on the banks of the river Nilā. Another commentator on the *Aṣṭā-ngahrdayasamhitā*, Vāsudeva, lived in the same village.

Parameśvara is dated to a period somewhat later than about A.D. 1425 (Kolamba 600) by N.S. Mooss, who assumes that he wrote his commentary after the composition of Vāsudeva's *Anvayamālā*, which work would have been superfluous if the *Vākyapradī pikā* had already been available. 454

A quotation from Pārameśvara in Indy's Śaśilekhā on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya⁴⁵⁵ should be regarded as an interpolation.

The PATHYA is an anonymous Sanskrit commentary. 456

The author of this work, the Pāthyakāra, is quoted in the Kairalī, ⁴⁵⁷ Parameśvara's Vākyapradīpikā, ⁴⁵⁸ Śrīdāsa's Hrdayabodhikā, ⁴⁵⁹ in a footnote of Kunte and Navre's edition of the Astāngahrdayasamhitā, ⁴⁶⁰ and in N.S. Mooss's notes on Vāgbhata's ganas. ⁴⁶¹ A commentary called Pāthyā is referred to in Śamkara's Lalitā.

The author of the *Pāthya* is earlier than Śrīdāsa and the latter's teacher, Vā-sudeva. 462 V. Raghavan 463 claims that it is the oldest of the commentaries written in Kerala and that it inspired many later commentators. 464

RĀMANĀTHA wrote a commentary (tīkā) on the Astāngahrdaya. 465

This author wrote a large number of commentaries on medical treatises, ⁴⁶⁶ some of which date from the later parts of the seventeenth century, which establishes that he cannot be earlier than the eighteenth century.

RĀMĀNUJĀCĀRYA of the Śukavata family is recorded as the author of a Telugu commentary, called Ānandaūrtha. 467

ŚAMKARA, whose full name was Plāntōļ (Pulāmantōļ) Śaṅkaran Mūs, 468 wrote a commentary called LALITĀ.

The available parts of this simple commentary, said to be elegantly written, but which remains unedited, cover chapters twenty to thirty of the Sūtrasthāna.

The author refers to works of predecessors, namely the *Hṛdayabodhikā*, *Hṛdyā*, *Pāthya*, Indu's Śaśilekhā, and (Arunadatta's) Sundarī. 469

Śaṃkara was a son of Nārāyaṇa Mūs and a pupil of Nīlakaṇṭha Mūs. The campaigns of Tipu Sultān made him leave his native village and take refuge in Travancore.

Śaṃkara, who belonged to one of the aṣṭavaidya families of Kerala, married, to-wards the end of the eighteenthcentury, the heiress of the Vayaskara family, which had no male issue left. The legal procedure adopted for this marriage, called sarvasvadāna, made Śaṃkara the owner of all the properties and rights of the Vayaskaras, who were Nambudiri brāhmaṇas, but no aṣṭavaidyas. The male descendents of Śaṃkara, however, are both Vayaskaras and aṣṭavaidyas. 470

ŚIVADĀSA(SENA)⁴⁷¹ wrote a commentary, called TATTVABODHA,⁴⁷² on the Uttarasthāna of the *Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya*. It is not certain whether or not he also commented on the other sections.⁴⁷³

The *Tattvabodha* shows a number of interesting features. Śivadāsa consulted many MSS of Vāgbhaṭa's treatise, ⁴⁷⁴ and was very keen on finding out the correct readings, which made him record a large number of variants. ⁴⁷⁵ Some variants are regarded as wrong readings and for that reason rejected. ⁴⁷⁶

Sivadāsa refers to earlier commentators ⁴⁷⁷ and regarded some of them as authoritative. ⁴⁷⁸ Arunadatta's views are sometimes accepted, ⁴⁷⁹ but more often criticized and dismissed. ⁴⁸⁰

Śivadāsasena's text of the Aṣṭāṅgahṛdaya is repeatedly at variance with the current editions. 481

The Buddhist elements in Vāgbhaṭa's work are explained away. Āryāvalokita (5. 50) is interpreted as Śiva; the Māyūrī (5.51) is said to be found in the *Atharvaveda*.

The identity of medicinal substances is often discussed. Noteworthy remarks are, for example, those on the identity of ambaṣṭhā (34.46), brahmasuvarcalā (39.50), guḍamañjarī (40.52), kākanāsā (34.42), uttamakāraṇī (30.27), and vārāhīkanda (39.58). Vernacular names for diseases and medicinal substances are recorded in a number of instances. Interesting terms used are karakarikā/karakārikā and piñcodikā.

Authorities and works quoted or referred to are: Aruṇa (3.44,⁴⁸⁶ 47cd, 58; 5.3; 13.66cd–67ab; 22.40cd–42ab; 25.10; 27.24–25ab; 30.27; 34.44cd–45ab), Bhānumatī (22.40cd–42ab), Bhela (34.6; 40.59), Bhoja (21.9cd–10ab, 36, 39ab; 23.24cd–26ab; 29.15; 31.3cd–4ab, 8, 9, 18cd–19ab, 21, 26, 28; 33.19ab), Brahmadeva (25.6 and 14; 35.17 and 21), Cakra (22.40cd–42ab), ⁴⁸⁷ Cakradatta (18.59cd–66), Candrāṭa (5.3; 24.26), Caraka (passim), Carakottaratantra (22.40cd–42ab), Dalhaṇa/Dalvaṇa (1.11cd–13ab; 5.3; 18.59cd–66; 31.17–18ab; 38.21–22ab, 24ab, 35–36ab), Dhanvantarinighaṇṭu (18.20cd; 22.70ab, 82, 91), Gayadāsa (22.40cd–42ab); 38.24ab), Hārīṭa (39.130), Jatukarṇa (7.19cd–24ab; 16.11; 39.80), Jejjaḍa (18.59cd–66), Karāla (15.16–17; 18.15cd), Kārttikakuṇḍa (22.40cd–42ab), Madhyavāgbhaṭa (22.4cd–5ab, 19–20, 46ab, 52, 53–54ab, 58cd–59, 93), Medinī (22.40cd–42ab), Nāgārjuna (38.3cd–6ab),

Nighaṇṭu (13.54cd-55),⁴⁸⁸ Nimi (10.17cd-18a; 30.30cd-31ab), Nirghaṇṭa (1),⁴⁸⁹ Niścala (5.18; 13.45; 22.32cd-33ab; 22.91),⁴⁹⁰ Ratnaprabhā (13.82cd-83ab),⁴⁹¹ Śālākya (19, intr.; 24.25cd-27), Suśruta (passim), tantrāntara (1.9cd-10ab; 3.18cd-20ab;⁴⁹² 11.12cd; 16.11; 19.13;⁴⁹³ 20.22cd-26ab, 27cd; 32.31-33ab; 33.17-18 and 49; 34.44cd-45ab; 39.58 and 98cd-101ab),⁴⁹⁴ Vaidyaprasāraka (15.24), Videha (10.3-4ab and 8cd-9ab; 23.16-17; 24.44cd-45), Vṛddhavāgbhaṭa (22.37cd-38), and Vrndakunda (22.40cd-42ab).

ŚRĪDĀSAPAŅDITA wrote a commentary, called *Hṛdayabodhikā*, ⁴⁹⁵ which may have covered the whole of the *Astāṅgahrdayasamhitā*. ⁴⁹⁶

The *Hṛdayabodhikā* is a very elaborate and valuable commentary, which reflects the interpretations of Vāgbhaṭa that were current in Kerala. It quotes many predecessors from that region and gives frequently the Malayāṭam equivalents of technical terms and names of medicinal plants.⁴⁹⁷ Earlier commentators profusely quoted are Indu, Aruṇadatta, Hāṭaka, and the authors of the *Hṛdyā*, *Pāṭhya*, and *(Vyākhyā)sāra*. Candranandana, however, is completely ignored.

Śrīdāsa is heavily indebted to Aruṇadatta, whose comments are very often borrowed and incorporated literally in the *Hṛdayabodhikā*, without indication of the source. Aruṇa's lengthy exposition on the tantrayuktis (ad A.h.U.40.78) is reproduced at the beginning of Śrīdāsa's commentary, which shows the importance he attached to this subject. The text of Aruṇadatta's *Sarvāṇgasundarā* in the printed editions differs sometimes from the text in the *Hṛdayabodhikā*. Śrīdāsa quotes, for example, a series of verses by Aruṇa or quoted by him which are not found in the editions. ⁴⁹⁸ Occasionally, Aruṇa's interpretations are rejected. ⁴⁹⁹ Usually, however, Aruṇa is referred to respectfully. The same applies to Indu, with whom Śrīdāsa often agrees and occasionally disagrees. ⁵⁰⁰

In a number of instances Śrīdāsa gives his own opinion explicitly, referring to himself as Pandita. ⁵⁰¹ These references show that he had his own view on the diseases belonging to the category āgantu ⁵⁰² and did not always accept the opinion of the author of the *Hrdyā*. ⁵⁰³ More often he mentions what his teacher, Vāsudeva, thought on a particular subject. ⁵⁰⁴ This teacher had his own judgments on the correctness of particular readings ⁵⁰⁵ and interpretations. ⁵⁰⁶

The abundance of quotations from earlier authors and works contributes to the value of the $Hrdayabodhik\bar{a}$.

Authorities and works quoted or referred to are: \$\bar{A}gama\$ (very often), \$\bar{A}gamafik\bar{a}\$ (Ni.2.3cd-6ab, 56ab, \$^{507}\$ 72-73ab; 10.4; 11.49-51ab), \$Agastya\$ (S\bar{u}.1.1), \$Agnive\u00e3a\$ (S\bar{u}.1.3-4ab), \$\bar{A}gnive\u00e3ya\$ (\u00e3\u00e3.3.61cd-62ab, 65cd-66ab, 67cd), \$Alamb\u00e3yana\$ (S\bar{u}.1.1; 5. 40), \$Amara\$ (S\bar{u}.1.1cd; \u00e3\u00e3.6.2; Ni.14.35), \$Amaram\u00e3\u00e1a (S\bar{u}.5.37-39), \$^{508}\$ \$Amarasimha\$ (S\bar{u}.2.8.26cd-31), \$Arthas\u00e3\u00e3rara (S\bar{u}.2.1cd-3ab), \$Arunadatta\$ (passim), \$^{509}\$ asmadguravah\$ (S\bar{u}.241-45ab; 16.12ab; 23.15cd-16ab and 21; 25.16cd-19; 26.13-14 and 20cd-22ab; 27.28-32; \$\u00e3\u00e3.1.83cd-88ab\$ and 94; 3.27cd, 59, 65cd-66ab, 119; 4.34-35ab, 36cd-37ab, 40ab; 6.47; \$Ni.1.5cd; 8.15ab; 10.4), \$Ast\u00e3

8ab),⁵¹ Bālakāvyada (Sū.1.18),⁵¹¹ Bhāluki (Sū.19.79cd-80ab; 27.34-36ab; 28.19 and 20-21ab; Ni.2.64-65ab and 76cd-78; 5.1-2), Bhālukīya (Sū.26.5, 10-11, 22-26, 43cd-46ab), Bharadvāja (Sū.1.1), Bhāradvājīya (Śā.3.67cd), Bhāsya (Ni.11.17cd-18a), 512 Bhāsyakrt (Śā.1.14cd-16ab), 513 Bhattārahariścandra (Sū.21.14cd-15), 514 Bheda (Sū.1.3-4ab; Śā.5.30cd-31), Bhoja (Sū.3.18-23ab; 5.19 and 35-36ab; 6.88cd-89ab, 93-96ab, 111cd-114ab, 167cd-168ab; 20.5 and 15cd-16; 26.6; 26.10-11, twice: 26.27-29ab: 26.36-37, three quotations: 28.20-21ab, 21cd, 26cd-31: 29.16-18. three quotations: 29.57-59ab; 29.59cd-61, four quotations: 29.62-64, twice: 30.3-8ab and 39; 30.45cd-46, twice; Ni.2.64-65ab), Bhojarā jī ya (Sū.3.11), Buddhāgama (Sū.1.1), Cānakya (Sū.7.14-18ab), Candrata (Sū.17.4ab), Caraka (passim), 515 Dākara (Sū.5.55), 516 Devalīya (Sū.2.22-23ab), Dhanvantari (Sū.1.1 and 17.4ab; Śā.5.128), dhānvantarīyāh (Sū.1.1 and 6cd; 19.20-24ab and 45cd-46ab; 26.47-55ab; 29.6cd-8ab; 30.3-8ab; Ni.10.20cd-21), dramilakavayah (Sū.1.23cd-24ab), 517 Drdhabala (Śā.3.61cd-62ab and 67cd), Gopālikā (Sū.6.91cd-94), 518 Halāyudha (Sū.1.1, twice), Haramekhalā (Sū.3.19-22), Hariścandra (Sū.1.1; 5.6-7ab and 42ab), 519 Hārīta (Sū.1.3-4ab), Hātaka (passim), 520 Hiraņyākṣa (Sū.19.79-80ab), Hiraņyākṣīya (Śā.3.67cd), Hrdyā and Hrdyākāra (passim), 521 Indu (passim), 522 Jātūkarna (Sū.1. 3-4ab), Kaksaputa (Sū.3.19-22), Kālidāsa (Sū.2.30), Kāmandakīya (Sū.7.14-18ab), Kānkāyana (Sū.1.14cd-15ab), Kapilabala (Sū.1.12ab), Kāsyapa (Sū.1.1; 3.19-22; 5.44-45), Kharanāda (Sū.1.9cd-10 and 19; 3.1-2; 5.18, 23cd, 28cd, 29ab; 6.64cd, 114cd-115ab, 149cd, 153cd-157; 8.54-55ab, twice; 9.1; 12.69-72; 19.11cd-12ab, 14cd-15, 76cd-77ab; Ni.14.20 and 21), Kriyāsiddhi (1.23cd-24ab), 523 Krsnātreya (Sū.1.14ab; 5.9cd-10; 6.29-30ab and 156ab), Ksārapāni (Sū.1.3-4ab and 14cd-15ab; 4.6cd-7; 19.79cd-80ab), Ksārapānī va (Sū.7.59cd-65ab), Māgha (Sū.2.25cd), 524 Mahābhārata (Sū.7.68cd-72ab), Mahābhoja (Sū.6.83), Mahāyāna (Sū.5.79-80ab), 525 mauhūrtikāh (Sū.16.17-18ab), muni (passim), Nāgānanda (Śā.5.6-9ab), 526 Nagna jit (Sū.1.1), Naiyāsika (Sū.3.7cd-8 and 44; 4.6cd-7; 5.18, 527 Nandikeśvarasamhitā (Sū.7.68cd-72ab), 528 Nighantu (Sū.1.1; 6.96; 529 19.15cd-17), Nimi (Sū.1.1 and 14cd-15ab; 20.4cd-5ab, 15-16ab, 19cd-20, 32-33ab), Nyāsa (Sū.2.9cd; 15.47; 20.39),⁵³⁰ Nyāyabhāsya (Sū.12.40-43ab), Pālakāpya (Sū.16.21cd-22ab), Pāñcāla (Sū.7.68cd-72ab),⁵³¹ Pañcikā (Sū.2.1-3ab; 3.26cd-27 and 45-47ab; 24.22),⁵³² Pañcikākāra (Sii.3.50cd-51ab), Pandita (Sū.4.6cd-7 and 31; 12.47cd-49ab; 27.52), Parāśara (Sū.1.3-4ab; 9.21; Śā.3.65cd-66ab), paratantra (Sū.5.29ab, 42cd-43; 19.50cd-51ab; Śā.3.8cd-9ab), 533 Pāthyakāra (passim), 534 Pauskalāvata (Sū.3.42cd-44ab), Purāna (Sū.2.30), Ratirahasya (Sū.7.68cd-72ab; 19.77cd-78ab), Šaivapurāna (Sū.1.1), śālākinah (Sū.2.4cd-5 and 7ab), Samgraha (passim), 535 Śamkarācārya (Sü.1.1), Sāmkhya (Śā.3.61cd-62ab), Sārakrt (passim), 536 Sāramusti (Sū.5.55 and 78cd; 6.91cd-94 and 129cd-131; 15.46; 16.17-18ab; 18.36cd), Sarvāngasundarā (often), 537 Śaśilekhā (often), 538 Sauśruta (often), Siddha (Sū.30.3–8ab), Skāndapurāna (Sū.1.1), Ślokālamkāra (Sū.6.151cd-155; 539 7.32ab), 540 śruti (Sū.1.1 and 3-4ab), sūdaśāstra (Sū.3.30cd-32ab; 5.50ab; 6.29-30ab and 104cd-106ab; 18.29), Suśruta (passim), Suśrutamahā pātha (Sū.5.13ab), ⁵⁴¹ tantrakrtah (Śā.3.61cd-62ab), tantrāntara (Sū.5.49; 6.30cd, 31, 156; 15.46; 20.22; Śā.2.3cd-6a; 3.14-15, 17cd-18a, 55-56), 542 tārkikāh (Sū.24.22), tippana (Śā.3.61cd-62ab, 63cd-64ab, 77cd-78, 79, 82, 96-103,

107cd–113ab; 5.41cd-42ab, 109, 112, 119cd–120ab; 6.1, 19cd–23ab, 24–25ab, 48cd–57),⁵⁴³ Udbhaṭa (Sū.3.23cd–26ab),⁵⁴⁴ Vāhaṭa (passim), vaidāntikāh (Sū.24. 22), Vaidehīsaṃhitā (23.16cd),⁵⁴⁵ Vaijayantī (Sū.4.31; Ni.2.38–39; 14.26–27),⁵⁴⁶ Vaitaraṇa (Sū.1.14ab; 20.16cd–17ab), Vālmīki (Śā.5.109), Vāmadeva (Sū.28.3–9, 19, 26cd–31), Vātsyānana (Sū.7.68cd–72ab), Veda (Sū.3.1–2), Viśvāmitra (Sū.30. 8cd-18), Viśvāmitrīya (Sū.30.1–2, 8cd–18, 39), Viśvaprakāśikā (Ni.2.38–39),⁵⁴⁷ Vrddhasauśṛuta (Sū.5.3-4ab), Vyāsa (Sū.2, intr. and 27), Yādava (Sū.17.16–17a),⁵⁴⁸ Yājuḥśruti (Śā.1.24cd–26ab), and Yavanasaṃhitā (Sū.3.9).⁵⁴⁹

Śrīdāsapaṇḍita⁵⁵⁰ was a pupil of Vāsudeva. ⁵⁵¹ Another pupil of the same teacher wrote the *Wyākhyāsāra*, often quoted by Śrīdāsa, and therefore written somewhat earlier. The *Hṛdayabodhikā* and *Wyākhyāsāra* contain a number of quotations, attributed to the guru of the authors, which are identical. ⁵⁵²

A Malayālam commentary on the Aṣṭāngahṛdaya, Śrīkanṭha's Alpabuddhiprabodhana, follows closely the Hṛdayabodhikā and Vyākhyāsāra Śrīkanṭha is placed in the latter half of the fourteenth century, which implies that Śrīdāsapāṇḍita may belong to the first half of the fourteenth century at the latest. 553 His terminus post quem depends on the dates of Aruṇadatta and Māhuka (the author of the Haramekhalā), who are quoted.

A more precise dating would be reached if Śrīdāsa's teacher were the Vāsudeva who wrote the Anvayamālā on the Aṣtāṅgahrdayasamhitā.

Śrīdāsapaṇḍita is quoted in Parameśvara's Vākyapradīpikā, ⁵⁵⁴ assigned to about A.D. 1425, ⁵⁵⁵ which does not conflict with the hypothesis that the author of the Anvayamālā was his guru. The quotations from a work by this guru in the Hṛḍayabodhikā could in that case be from the Anvayamālā. If correct, the hypothesis that Śrīdāsa was a pupil of the author of the Anvayamālā corroborates that he belongs to the fourteenth century.

ŚRĪKAŅŢHA, pupil of Govinda Śaṃkarācārya, wrote a Malayālam commentary, called Al pabuddhi prabodhana. 556

This commentary follows closely Śrīdāsa's *Hrdayabodhikā* and the *Vyākhyāsāra*, and consists partly of Malayāļam translations of passages from these works.

Its author, Śrīkantha, is identified as the teacher, well-versed in āyurveda, of Rāghava, who wrote a commentary, called *Padārthacintana*, on Vāsudeva Paramaśivayogin's *Yudhiṣthiravijaya*, a kāvya.⁵⁵⁷ Rāghava refers in this commentary to Śrīkantha. Rāghava was in his turn the teacher of Śankara, the author of the Śrīkṛṣṇavijaya, ⁵⁵⁸ who mentions him respectfully.

Rāghava is referred to in the *Candrotsava*, a maṇipravāla kāvya of the fifteenth century; Śaṃkara is mentioned in the *Kokilasaṃdeśa* by Uddaṇḍa, ⁵⁵⁹ who flourished in the beginning of the fifteenth century.

Śrīkantha can therefore be assigned to the second half of the fourteenth century. 560

The SUGATAŢĪKĀ is recorded by some authors. ⁵⁶¹ This commentary is quoted in Kunte and Navre's edition of the Astāṇgahrdayasamhitā. ⁵⁶²

ŢODARAMALLAVAIDYA is the author of a commentary, called NIDĀNACINTĀMAŅI, on the Nidānasthāna of the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya.

The author, Todaramallavaidya Kānhaprabhu, was the son of the physician Bei \mathfrak{n}_1 -devaprabhu and Sāmāmbikā, 563 which makes him different from the Todara to whom the Todarānanda is attributed. 564

The Nidānacintāmani is quoted in the footnotes of Kunte and Navre's edition of the Astāngahrdayasamhitā. 565 These quotations show that Th. Aufrecht's assertion that Todara often agrees with Arunadatta 566 is untenable. Todara has many independent interpretations; the similarities between the commentaries of Todara and Candranandana are more striking than those between the Nidānacintāmani and the Sarvāngasundarā.

P. Cordier remarks that Todaramalla's commentary is poor in quotations. 567

UDAYĀDĪTYA(BHAṬṬA) was the author of a commentary called AṢṬĀNGAHŖDAYA-DĪPIKĀ. ⁵⁶⁸ He was the son of Mādhavabhaṭṭa and was born in Śrīsthitagrāmamakṣikā-ranya. ⁵⁶⁹

Udayāditya's commentary shows that its author is heavily indebted to his predecessor Śrīdāsa, and was influenced by Aruṇadatta's interpretations. He sometimes borrows from Śrīdāsa's sources without mentioning their names. ⁵⁷⁰

Udayāditya is probably identical with the commentator Manodayāditya. 571

 $V\bar{a}$ CASPATIMIŚRA is mentioned by some authors as a commentator on the Astangahrdaya. 572

VĀGBHAṬA himself is recorded as the author of a commentary, called Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛ-dayavaiḍūryakabhāṣya.⁵⁷³ The Sanskrit text of this work has not been preserved, but it is available in a Tibetan translation (*Yan-lag brgyad-paḥi sāiṅ-po źes-bya-baḥi sman-dpyad-kyi bśad-pa*) that forms part of the Tanjur. This translation, produced during the first half of the life of Lha-bla-ma Ye-śes-ḥod,⁵⁷⁴ was made by Dharmaśrī-varman ⁵⁷⁵ and Śākya blo-gros (Śākyamati),⁵⁷⁶ according to its colophon, which adds that the translation was revised by Mar-lo,⁵⁷⁷ Rig-pa gźon-nu (Vidyākumāra), and Dbyig-gi rin-chen (Vasuratna).⁵⁷⁸

Vāgbhaṭa's auto-commentary ⁵⁷⁹ was rendered into Tibetan before the *Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛ-dayasamhitā* itself. ⁵⁸⁰

Medical authorities referred to are Agastya, Agniveśa, Atri, Bheda, Caraka, Hārīta, Nimi, Śaunaka, Suśruta, and Vasistha. ⁵⁸¹

Vāgbhaṭa's bhāṣya may be mentioned in the Kusumāvalī on the Siddhayoga. 582

VĀGBHAṬA, author of the Kāvyānuśāsana, is credited with a HRDAYAṬIPPAŅA 583

VĀPYACANDRA is sometimes regarded as a commentator on the Aṣṭāṅgaḥṛdaya. 584

VāSUDEVA wrote a commentary called ANVAYAMĀLĀ, ⁵⁸⁵ which mainly consists of prose paraphrases (anvaya) of Vāgbhaṭa's verses, thus elucidating their syntax. ⁵⁸⁶ The *Anvayamālā* probably covered the whole of the *Astāngahrdaya*. ⁵⁸⁷

Vāsudeva was a Nambudiri brāhmaṇa and a disciple of aṣṭavaidya Ālattūr Nampi of Tirunāvāy, on the banks of the river Ponnani. 588 Vāsudeva himself mentions that he lived in Vaṭagrāma, which is the same village as Aśvatthagrāma, where Parameśvara lived. Parameśvara's commentary may have been influenced by the Anvayamālā. Vayaskara N.S. Mooss, who edited the commentaries of Indu and Parameśvara on the Aṣṭāngahṛḍaya, as well as the Anvayamālā on the Śārīrasthāna and two parts of the Pāṭhya, was a descendant of Vāsudeva, who was, as declared by himself, of Vayaskara lineage.

N.S. Mooss dates Vāsudeva to a period before A.D. 1425, which implies that he may have been the teacher of Śrīdāsapandita and the author of the Vyākhyāsāra.

A story told about Vāsudeva relates that he cured the Rājā of Tekkumkur, who suffered from a carbuncle, which resulted in his being outcasted by his Nambudiri relatives, who considered him to be degraded through the practice of surgery. 589

VIŚVEŚVARAPANDITA wrote a commentary called VIJÑEY ĀRTHAPRAKĀŚIKĀ. 590

VIŢŢHALAPAŅŅITA is sometimes regarded as the author of a commentary called DĨ-PIKĀ. ⁵⁹¹

An anonymous VYĀKHYĀ is recorded by some authors. 592

A commentary called VYĀKHYĀSĀRA ⁵⁹³ was written by an author from Kerala. ⁵⁹⁴ The name of this author may have been Ravi. ⁵⁹⁵

The small part of this commentary that has been edited (Śā.1.1–77)⁵⁹⁶ contains quotations from Āgama, Aruṇadatta (1.59cd–62 and 63–69), Bharata (1.70–72ab), ⁵⁹⁷ Caraka, Dāruvāhin (1.5a–c), *Hiraṇyākṣī ya* (1.5d–6ab, 23cd–24ab, 24cd–26ab), Kohala (1.70–72ab), ⁵⁹⁸ Saṃgraha, Sauśruta, Sinṛti (1.26cd–27ab), and tantrāntara (1.26cd–27ab and 27cd–28ab).

The author of the *Vyākhyāsāra* is quoted as Sārakṛt by Indu, Parameśvara, Śrīdā-sapandita, and the author of the *Kairalī*. ⁵⁹⁹ Parameśvara cites the *Wākhyāsāra* too.

The author was a contemporary of Śrīdāsapaṇḍita and studied under the same teacher, called Vāsudeva by Śrīdāsa. The Vyākhyāsāra and Śrīdāsa's Hṛdayabodhikā contain identical quotations from and references to this teacher. 600

YAŚONANDANA SARKĀRA is mentioned as the author of a commentary called PRA-DĪPĀKHYĀ. ⁶⁰¹

One or more anonymous commentaries on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha are recorded in MSS Catalogues. 602

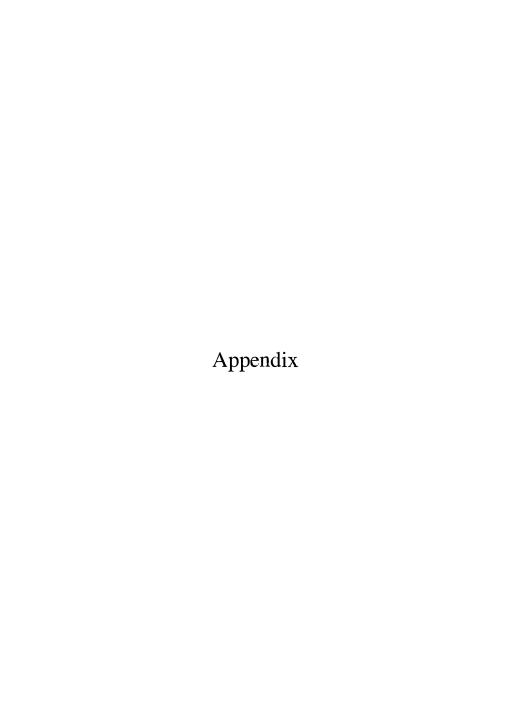
BRAHMĀNANDA or Brahmasūri wrote a commentary, called TĀTPARYADĪPIKĀ, on the Astāṅgasamgraha. 603

INDU wrote the ŚAŚILEKHĀ on the Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha.604

3 Commentaries on the works ascribed to Vāgbhaṭa

685

Rāmacandraśāstrin Kiñjavadekar wrote a Prabhāṭippaṇī on chapters one to eleven of the Sūtrasthāna of the Asṭāṅgasaṃgraha. 605



Various ancient authorities

BANDHAKA¹ is mentioned as the author of a treatise on children's diseases in Dalhana's *Nibandhasamgraha* (ad Su.U.1.4cd-8ab). He therefore figures on the traditional list of authors of a tantra on kaumārabhṛtya.²

BHĀLUKI³ was the author of a Bhālukitantra, 4 also quoted as Bhālukī ya

Authors and treatises quoting from or referring to this work or its author are Āḍhamalla, ⁵ Anantakumāra, ⁶ the *Āyurvedābdhisāra* and its commentary, ⁷ the *Bheṣajakalpa*, ⁸ the *Bheṣajjamañjūsāṣannaya*, Bindu, ⁹ Cakrapāṇidatta, ¹⁰ Candraṭa, ¹¹ Caturbhuja, ¹² Cūdāmaṇi, ¹³ Dalhaṇa, ¹⁴ Dāmodara, ¹⁵ Dattarāma, ¹⁶ Gaṅgādhara, ¹⁷ Gayadāṣa, ¹⁸ Hārāṇacandra, ¹⁹ Jejjaṭa, ²⁰ Mādhavācārya, ²¹ Bhudeb Mookerjee, ²² Nārāyaṇa, ²³ Niścalakara, ²⁴ Nṛṣiṃhakavi, ²⁵ Parameśvara, ²⁶ Rāmapraṣāda, ²⁷ Śivadāṣaṣena, ²⁸ Somadeva, ²⁹ Śrīdāṣapaṇḍita, ³⁰ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ³¹ Toḍara, ³² Vācaspati, ³³ Vāgbhaṭa, ³⁴ Vallabhabhaṭṭa, ³⁵ Veṅkaṭeṣ́a, Vijayarakṣita, ³⁶ and Viśvanātha Dvivedī. ³⁷ Bhāluki is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's *Ratnaprabhā*. ³⁸

Hariprapanna quotes some rasayogas, ascribed to Bhāluki, from Dattarāma's Rasarājasundara, ³⁹ Dattātreya's Rasacaņdāṃśu, ⁴⁰ Deveśvara Upādhyāya's Rasandraratnakoṣa, ⁴¹ Kāśīnātha's Cikitsākramakalpavallī, ⁴² Magnirāma's Rasakalpalatā, ⁴³ and the anonymous Rasaratnakaumudī. ⁴⁴

Verses from the *Bhālukitantra* were incorporated in the *Mādhavacikitsā*,⁴⁵ *Siddhayoga*,⁴⁶ *Cakradatta*,⁴⁷ and various later works.

The Indian tradition regards Bhāluki as the author of a salyatantra, ⁴⁸ but the quotations from the treatise called after him show that it dealt with more aspects of medicine.

The *Bhālukitantra* was composed in the form of a dialogue between an unknown teacher and Bhāluki as his pupil. ⁴⁹ It may have consisted of a number of sections (sthāna), since a Siddhisthāna of the work is referred to. ⁵⁰ It was probably written in verse, interspersed with prose. ⁵¹

Subjects covered by the quotations are: units of time, ⁵² the preparation of medicines, ⁵³ emetics and clysters, ⁵⁴ surgical instruments, ⁵⁵ bloodletting, ⁵⁶ the application of leeches, ⁵⁷ the extraction of foreign bodies, ⁵⁸ the surgical treatment of asmarf (vesical calculus), ⁵⁹ the diagnosis and treatment of various diseases, ⁶⁰ and in particular the description and treatment of fevers. Bhāluki's description of a series of saṃnipāta fevers, his characterization of the disorder called koṭha, ⁶¹ and his way of distinguishing between kilāsa and śvitra, ⁶² were famous, being quoted in a number of later works. The number of śūkadoṣas and their subdivision, as found in his tantra, were, however, not accepted by later authors, ⁶³

690 Appendix

The comments of Cakrapāṇidatta and Dalhaṇa on Suśruta's chapters about surgical instruments show that Bhāluki's treatise was probably one of the sources of the Su-śrutasaṃhitā. 64

One verse is said to be common to the works of Bhāluki and Bhoja. ⁶⁵ Another quotation, ascribed to Bhāluki, consists of verses found in the *Bhelasamhitā*. ⁶⁶

Most interesting are the verses on sammipāta fevers. A long series is quoted in the Madhukośa⁶⁷ and Nārāyaṇa's Jvaranirṇaya;⁶⁸ closely related descriptions are found in the Kāśyapasaṃhitā,⁶⁹ Vangasena,⁷⁰ and Jvaratimirabhāskara. ⁷¹ Niścala cites eight stanzas on saṃnipāta fever in general⁷² and twenty-four verses on irregular (viṣama) fevers.⁷³ The last series is the longest description known of the viṣama fevers; pralepaka fever is included in the group.

Bhāluki was opposed to the admission of śūdras as pupils of āyurvedic teachers. ⁷⁴
The Bhālukitantra is probably a rather early work, anterior to Jejjaṭa, Mādhava-cikitsā and Siddhayoga.

The iatrochemical tradition regards Bhāluki as one of its originators and authorities. 75

BHOJA ⁷⁶ is an ancient authority who composed a work of his own that may have resembled the *Suśrutasaṃhitā* ⁷⁷ in being of a comprehensive nature, although laying emphasis on śalya and śālākya. Bho ja's treatise, referred to as a saṃhitā ⁷⁸ or tantra, was, as appears from quotations, written in verse, mixed with some prose, ⁷⁹ and must have been in the form of a dialogue between a teacher and some king. ⁸⁰ Bho ja was undoubtedly a specialist in śalya and śālākya, ⁸¹ but the quotations from his work prove that he was well versed in basic concepts, ⁸² anatomy, ⁸³ kaumārabhṛtya, ⁸⁴ kāyacikitsā, ⁸⁵ materia medica. ⁸⁶ technical rules. ⁸⁷ etc.

The Indian tradition regards him as the author of a śalyatantra. 88 This work may have been one of Suśruta's sources. 89

The ancient Bhoja is quite different from his later namesake to whom numerous works on various subjects, including medicine, are attributed. 90

Bhoja is already known as an ancient medical authority in Buddhist literature, ⁹¹ where he is referred to as a specialist in toxicology and the treatment of snake-bites, ⁹²

Special features of Bhoja's treatise, as shown by quotations, are: the digestive fire forms part of pitta; 93 a divergent description of the stages of embryonic development; 94 the same views on irregular fevers as expressed by other specialists in śalya; 95 pravāhikā is called visraṃsī; 96 numerous detailed descriptions of diseases; 97 the description of nine types of pramehapiḍakā; 98 masūrikā, one of the pramehapiḍakās, is called kulatthikā; 99 the absence of raktavidradhi as a separate type of vidradhi; 100 an aberrant view on sidhma; 101 the acceptance of a larger number of kṣudrarogas; 102 the recognition of sixty-five mukharogas; 103 the description of ten types of kaṣāya; 104 the names of some uncommon plants: alakṣmī, 105 lakṣmī and mahālakṣmī, 106 hrasvavallī, mahāvallī, kṣudravallī, and śvetavallī. 107

Several versions of Bhoja's work may have been current, since quotations are found from authorities and works called Bhojarāja, Bhojarājīya, Bhojottara, Bṛhadbhoja, Ksudrabhoja, Mahābho ja, and Vrddhabhoja. 108

Bhoja is almost always quoted with respect, but on one occasion Dalhana rejects his view. 109

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Bhoja 110 are: Ādhamalla, 111 Anantaku māra. 112 Āśubodha and Nitvabodha Senagupta in their commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, 113 the Ayurvedābdhisāra and its commentary, 114 Bhāvamiśra, 115 Bharadvāja's Bhesa jakalpa, 116 the Bhesa jakalpasārasamgraha, the Brhannighanturatnākara, 117 Binod Lal Sen in his Ayurvedavijāna, 118 Cakrapānidatta in his Ayurvedavijāna, 118 Cakrapānidata in his rvedadīpikā¹¹⁹ and Bhānumatī, ¹²⁰ Candrata, ¹²¹ Dalhaṇa, ¹²² Dāmodara, ¹²³ Dattarāma Caube, 124 the Gandhavāda, 125 Gangādhara in his Bhesa jakalpa, Gayadāsa, 126 Gopāladāsa in his Cikitsāmrta, Hārānacandra, 127 Indu, 128 Jejjata, 129 the Jvaracikitsita, the Jvarasamuccaya, the Kairalī commentary on the Uttarasthāna of the Astāngahrdayasamhitā, 130 Karandīkar in his Nidānadīpikā, 131 Kāśīrāma, 132 Laksmīrāma, 133 Nāganātha in his Nidānapradīpa, Narasimha in his commentary on the Mādhavanidāna, Niścalakara, 134 Nrsimhakavi, 135 Parameśvara, 136 Raghunātha, 137 Rūpanayana in his commentary on the Yogaśataka, Śivadāsasena, 138 Śrīdāsapandita, 139 Śrīkanthadatta, 140 Tīsata, 141 Todara, 142 Trimalla, 143 Vācaspati, 144 Vāgbhata, 145 the Vaidyacintāmani, 146 Vijayaraksita, 147 Vīrasimha, 148 and the Yogaratnākara. 149 Bhoja is also quoted by the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's Ratna prabhā. 150

Bho ja is mentioned in the Ma'din al-Shitā' 151 and Amānallāh Khān's Ganj-i Badāward, written during the reign of Shāh Jahān. 152

Bhojarāja¹⁵³ is quoted by Anantakumāra, ¹⁵⁴ in the *Kāmaratna*, ¹⁵⁵ and by Śivadāsasena. ¹⁵⁶ The *Bhojarājīya*¹⁵⁷ is cited in the *Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya* and by Śrīdāsapaṇdita. ¹⁵⁸ *Bhojottara*, ¹⁵⁹ *Brhadbhoja*, ¹⁶⁰ and *Kṣudrabhoja* ¹⁶¹ are cited by Anantakumāra. *Mahābhoja* is cited by Śrīdāsapaṇdita. ¹⁶² *Bṛhadbhoja* was one of the sources of the *Bheṣajakalpasārasamgraha* ¹⁶³ and Gangādhara's *Bheṣajakalpa*. *Vṛddhabhoja* is quoted by Ādhamalla, ¹⁶⁴ the commentator on the *Āyurvedābdhisāra*, ¹⁶⁵ Candrata, ¹⁶⁶ Dalhaṇa, ¹⁶⁷ Nāganātha in his *Nidānapradīpa*, Rūpanayana in his commentary on the *Yogaśataka*, *Ṭodara*, ¹⁶⁸ Vācaspati, ¹⁶⁹ Vijayarakṣita, ¹⁷⁰ and the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's *Ratnaprabhā*. ¹⁷¹

The verses from *Vrddhabhoja* are interesting, since they stress the importance of disorders of the digestive fire and describe the differences among three closely related disorders of this group, namely arocaka, bhaktadveṣa and abhaktacchanda.

Bhoja's treatise may belong to the period in which the saṃhitā of Suśruta was revised; it may even be earlier and belong to Suśruta's sources, ¹⁷² since Śrīkaṇṭhadatta remarks that Suśruta follows Bhoja. ¹⁷³ Dalhaṇa refers unfavourably to predecessors who incorporated a statement by Bhoja in the text of the *Suśrutasaṃhitā*. ¹⁷⁴ Bhoja is mentioned in the company of Bhāluki ¹⁷⁵ and Viśvāmitra, ¹⁷⁶ also together with Jejjaṭa and Kārttika. ¹⁷⁷ He is certainly earlier than Jejjaṭa, Indu, Tīsaṭa, etc., who quote him. Bhoja himself refers to earlier authorities ¹⁷⁸ and to Dhanvantari. ¹⁷⁹

CAKŞUŞYA or CAKŞUŞYENA 180 is an ancient medical authority and the reputed author of a lost tantra on śālākya. 181

He is quoted ¹⁸² or referred to by Ādhamalla, ¹⁸³ Anantakumāra, ¹⁸⁴ Āśubodha and

692 Appendix

Nityabodha in their commentary on the Rasaratnasamuccaya, ¹⁸⁵ the author of the Bhe-sajakalpasārasamgraha, ¹⁸⁶ the author of the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, ¹⁸⁷ Cakrapāṇidatta, ¹⁸⁸ Candrata, ¹⁸⁹ Palhaṇa, ¹⁹⁰ Gayadāsa, ¹⁹¹ Indu, ¹⁹² Mādhava, ¹⁹³ Niścalakara, ¹⁹⁴ Śivadāsasena, ¹⁹⁵ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ¹⁹⁶ Ṭoḍara, ¹⁹⁷ Vācaspati, ¹⁹⁸ Vāgbhaṭa, ¹⁹⁹ and Vaṅgasena, ²⁰⁰

Cakṣuṣyeṇa's treatise was one of the sources of Cakrapāṇidatta's Cikitsāsaṇ-graha 201

Cakṣuṣyeṇa's work was probably a saṃhitā, ²⁰² mainly written in verse, ²⁰³ with an emphasis on śālākya, but also covering many other subjects. ²⁰⁴ The citations show that Cakṣuṣyeṇa's treatise dealt with general subjects, technical rules, ²⁰⁵ pañcakarman, ²⁰⁶ and the treatment of diseases belonging to the divisions of kāyacikitsā and kaumārabhṛtya. ²⁰⁷ Among the general subjects were the three types of country (deśa), ²⁰⁸ the constitutions (prakṛti), ²⁰⁹ sattva, ²¹⁰ sātmya, ²¹¹ the various types of kaṣāya, ²¹² and the four types of sneha. ²¹³

Cakṣuṣyeṇa distinguished two varieties of kvātha.²¹⁴ He held a divergent view on the meaning of pilla, regarding it as a term designating one eye disease or a small group of disorders, two of which are known under the names aklinna- and praklinnavartman.²¹⁵

A Cākṣuṣa quoted by Mallinātha 216 appears to be a different author, who wrote on nīti or gajašāstra. 217

DĀRUKA ²¹⁸ is an ancient medical authority, quoted by Cakrapāṇidatta ²¹⁹ on the rules for the preparation and administration of decoctions. Two citations, found in the commentaries of Aruṇadatta and Śrīdāsa on the *Aṣṭāṇgaḥṛdayasaṇhitā*, may be from Dāruka, if certain variants in the MSS are preferable to the printed text. ²²⁰

Opinions are divided on the question whether or not Dāruka is identical with Dāruvāha. 221 A decision cannot be reached on this point.

A Dāruka is the friend and charioteer of Kṛṣṇa in the $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata^{222}$ and a number of Purāṇas. 223

DĀRUVĀHA, ²²⁴ sometimes called Dāruvāhi(n), is an ancient medical authority, referred to and quoted in a number of texts and commentaries.

Dāruvāha's name occurs in the Kāśyapasaṃhitā, where he induces Vṛddhajīvaka to put questions to his teacher, Kaśyapa. Another chapter of the same treatise 26 presents him as a member of an assembly of sages who declare how many types of diseases should be distinguished; the royal sage (rājarṣi) Dāruvāha is credited with the thesis that diseases are of five kinds: of exogenous origin (āgantuja), caused by one of the three dosas, or all three together.

Dāruvāha is quoted by Aruṇadatta,²²⁷ Cakrapanidatta,²²⁸ Jejjaṭa,²²⁹ and Niścalakara.²³⁰ Dāruvāhi(n) is cited by Śrīdāsapandita²³¹ and the author of the *Vyākhyāsāra* on the *Aṣṭāṇgahṛdaya*.²³² Indu refers to Dāruvāhi(n) in his commentary on the *Aṣṭā-ngasamgraha*.²³³

Niścala gives Daruvāha's opinion on the quantities of a kvātha and sneha to be pre-

scribed to different types of patients. Cakrapāṇidatta and Jejjaṭa quote verses about the pathophysiology of fever. Aruṇadatta and Śrīdāsapaṇḍita quote two stanzas on the circumstances during sexual intercourse which determine the conception of a boy or a girl. Aruṇadatta cites Dāruvāhi on the physiology of lactation. ²³⁴ Indu ascribes some statements in prose on the qualities required of a wet-nurse to Dāruvāhi, ²³⁵ cites him twice as interpreting in a different way some verses on the detites to be inscribed in a maṇḍala serving to ward off grahas, ²³⁶ and regards Nagnajit as identical with Dāruvāhin. ²³⁷ The view that Dāruvāha or Dāruvāhi(n) and Nagnajit are one and the same authority is shared by a number of contemporary Indian scholars. ²³⁸ Some consider him to be the same as Dāruka. ²³⁹

JĪVAKA ²⁴⁰ is mentioned as the author of a treatise on children's diseases in Dalhaṇa's commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā. ²⁴¹ Recipes attributed to him are found in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya, ²⁴² the Bower MS, ²⁴³ the Cakradatta, ²⁴⁴ Toḍara's Āyurvedasaukhya, ²⁴⁵ and Vaṅgasena's Cikitsāsārasaṃgraha. ²⁴⁶ These prescriptions, apart from those in the Bower MS, do not deal with children's diseases; ²⁴⁷ those found in Anantakumāra's work are concerned with disorders in pregnant women. Some verses, occurring in Vaṅgasena's treatise, enumerate seven disorders of the breastmilk, as described by Jīvaka. ²⁴⁸ The collection of prescriptions, known as the *Jīvakapustaka*, mentions Jīvaka as one who gets instruction in medical matters from the Buddha. ²⁴⁹

A (Vrddha)jīvaka is the reputed author of the Kāśyapasanhitā, a treatise specializing in the branch of āyurveda called kaumārabhṛtya. ²⁵⁰ The Kāśyaparṣiproktastrīcikitsāsūtra, a Buddhist treatise on embryology and prenatal care, is said to have been taught by Kāśyapa to Jīvaka. ²⁵¹ Thai traditional medicine credits Jīvaka with treatises on children's diseases. ²⁵²

Although his name is often mentioned in connection with paediatrics, the earliest references to him, found in Buddhist literature, depict him as a skillful surgeon, ²⁵³ who practised laparotomy and even trephination of the skull. ²⁵⁴ This Jīvaka, surnamed Komārabhacca, ²⁵⁵ is described as providing free medical care to the Buddha and other monks, and donating his mango grove, named Jīvakārāma, at Rājagṛha, to the Buddhist monastic community. His free medical service to monks is said to have attracted large numbers of people to join the order. Legends about his life and medical feats can be found in many versions of a number of Buddhist scriptures. ²⁵⁶

Jīvaka is reported to have obtained his medical education at Taxila by studying for seven years as apprentice to a physician, who is called Ātreya in part of the sources. After completing his studies, he travelled widely and acquired great fame. The legends concerning Jīvaka recount treatments performed on various people in different places.

A Jīvakacarita, devoted to the life and deeds of the Jīvaka known from Buddhist literature, was written by Śubhacandra, an author assigned to the sixteenth century. ²⁵⁷

Jīvaka is known as Kumārajīva (Ḥćho-byed gźon-nu) in the Tibetan medical tradition, where he is associated with G-yu-thog yon-tan mgon-po. 258

The secondary literature on Jīvaka is rather extensive. 259

694 Appendix

KAPILA²⁶⁰ is quoted in Niścala's *Ratnaprabhā* on the composition of the groups of drugs called tryūṣaṇa, caturūṣaṇa, pañcoṣaṇa, and ṣa�ūṣaṇa.²⁶¹

Kapila is also quoted in Todara's *Āyurvedasaukhya*. ²⁶² Todara's quotations, dealing with the symptoms and treatment of fevers and vesical calculi, do not convey the impression of being from an early treatise, since the sammipāta fevers called raktaṣthīvin and pralāpaka are mentioned.

Hemādri cites a verse by a Kapila who is obviously identical with Kapilabala, for this stanza about the relationships between the dosas and the tastes forms part of the text of the Aṣṭāṅgasaṃgraha. ²⁶³ The Kapila quoted by Nṛṣiṃhakavi is the same as the Kapilabala quoted by Cakra. ²⁶⁴

D.Ch. Bhattacharyya claims that Kapila, whom he regards as identical with the Kapilabala who was Drdhabala's father, is twice cited or referred to by Niścalakara. ²⁶⁵ A medical authority called Kapila figures in the *Milindapañha* (4. 7.20)²⁶⁶ and *Visuddhimagga*. ²⁶⁷ His name is also found in the *Mahāvyutpatti*. ²⁶⁸ A medical treatise, devoted to rasāyana, called *Kapilasiddhānta* is also recorded. ²⁶⁹ G. Mukhopadhyaya claims that the name of Kapila occurs in the list of sages of the *Carakasaṇhitā*²⁷⁰ and in a list of persons described as proficient in the healing art in the *Devīpurāṇa*. ²⁷¹

The Kapilamuni quoted in the $Kaly\bar{a}nak\bar{a}raka$, and the Kapila referred to in Cakrapānidatta's $\bar{A}yurvedad\bar{\imath}pik\bar{a}^{273}$ and in the introductory verses of Vācaspati's commentary on the $M\bar{a}dhavanid\bar{a}na$, may be different from the physician Kapila.

Kapila is by some regarded as the author of a salyatantra.²⁷⁴

Kapila is a Rasasiddha in the *Pāradasaṇhitā*, ²⁷⁵ *Rasaratnākara* ²⁷⁶ and *Rasaratnasa-muccaya*, ²⁷⁷ The *Raseśvarasiddhānta*, quoted in the *Sarvadarśanasaṃgraha*, ²⁷⁸ refers to Kapila as one of the Siddhas who obtained jīvanmukti.

As is evident from the quotations, Kapila may in some cases be regarded as an abbreviation of Kapilabala; the appellation muni, applied to Kapila and not to Kapilabala, tells against an overall identity of Kapila and Kapilabala. ²⁷⁹

KARĀLA ²⁸⁰ is an ancient medical authority, regarded as a specialist in śālākya and the author of a lost tantra on that branch of āyurveda. ²⁸¹ Vāgbhaṭa (A.s.Sū.1.11) mentions him as one of a series of sages who composed a medical reatise (tantra).

Karāla is moreover quoted orreferred to in the Bower MS, ²⁸² by Cakrapāṇidatta, ²⁸³ Dalhaṇa, ²⁸⁴ Śivadāsasena, ²⁸⁵ Sodhala, ²⁸⁶ Śrīkanthadatta, ²⁸⁷ and Vācaspati. ²⁸⁸ Vangasena ²⁸⁹ and Vṛṇda ²⁹⁰ are sometimes said to quote him.

The quotations from and references to Karāla, the reference in the Sodhalanighantu excepted, deal with diseases of the eyes, ears and nose, thus showing that he was indeed a specialist in śālākya.

Karāla distinguished ninety-six, Sātyaki eighty, and Videha seventy-six eye diseases. ²⁹¹ Caraka fellowed Karāla, ²⁹² but Suśruta was an adherent of Videha's system. ²⁹³ Karāla's views differed in some other respects too from those of other śālākya specialists, both with respect to the aetiology of particular diseases ²⁹⁴ and their treatment. ²⁹⁵

Karāla is by some regarded as a pupil of Nimi (Videha).²⁹⁶ Others, who identify

him with Karāla Janaka, consider him to be the son of Nimi. ²⁹⁷ Karāla Janaka is mentioned in the *Majjhimanikāya*, *Mahābhārata* and Aśvaghoṣa's *Buddhacarita*. ²⁹⁸ This Karāla Janaka taught āyurveda to Vasiṣṭha according to the *Mahābhārata*, where also references to the former's knowledge about foetal development and the component parts of the human body are found. ²⁹⁹

KHARANĀDA ³⁰⁰ was the author of a *Kharanādasaṃhitā*, which must have been an authoritative work, ³⁰¹ since it is profusely ³⁰² and extensively ³⁰³ quoted by later writers. Alternative forms of Kharanāda's name are Kharaṇāda, ³⁰⁴ Khāraṇāda, ³⁰⁵ and Khāraṇādi. ³⁰⁶

Kharanāda's medical treatise itself is known from quotations only, but a torn leaf from a birch bark MS of a commentary on this work was discovered during excavations at Navapura near Gilgit in the summer of 1938. This commentary is called *Khāranādanyāsa*, and the fragment found relates to a chapter on pregnancy entitled khundikā garbhāvakrāntih. 308

Kharanāda's work was called a saṃhitā, as shown by a reference to the *Kharanādasaṇhitā* in Indu's commentary on the *Aṣṭāṅgasaṇgraha*, ³⁰⁹ and was revised by Bhattārahariścandra. ³¹⁰

Authors and works quoting from or referring to Kharanāda³¹¹ are: Ādhamalla, ³¹² Anantakumāra, 313 Arunadatta, 314 Āśubodha Vidyābhūsana, 315 the Āyurvedābdhisāra, 316 Bharadvāja's Bhesajakalpa, 317 the glosses on Bhāvamiśra's Bhāvaprakāśa, 318 the Bhesajjamañjūsāsannaya, Cakrapānidatta's commentary on the Carakasamhitā, 319 Candranandana's commentary on the Astāngahrdayasamhitā, 320 Candrata's Yogaratnasamuccaya and commentary on the Cikitsākalikā, 321 Dāmodara's Ārogyacintāmani. 322 Gananāthasena's commentary on his Siddhāntanidāna. 323 Gulrāj sarmamisra's Viśikhānupraveśavijñāna, Hemādri's commentary on the Astāngahrdayasamhitā, 324 Indu's commentaries on the works ascribed to Vāgbhata, 325 Jejjata, 326 Keśava, 327 Krsnadatta's commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, Mānakavi's Kavipramoda, Meghadeva's commentary on the Mādhavadravyaguna, Nāganātha's Nidānapradīpa, Nārāyana's Jvaranirnaya, 328 Niścalakara, 329 Nrsimhakavi, 330 the Śārngadharasamhitā. 331 Sivadāsasena's commentary on the Cakradatta. 332 Sodhala's Gadanigraha. 333 Śrīdāsapandita's commentary on the Astāngahrdayasanıhitā, 334 Śrīkanthadatta, 335 Todara, 336 Tripāthiśamkara's commentary on the Añjananidāna, Vācaspati, 337 Vijavaraksita. 338 and Vopadeva. 339 Non-medical authors citing him are Daksināvartanātha and Pūrnasarasvatī in their commentaries on Kālidāsa's Meghadūta.340 A Vrddhakharanāda is quoted once in Anantakumāra's Yogaratnasamuccaya. 341

A medical treatise called $Kh\bar{a}ran\bar{a}d\bar{r}$ is mentioned in the introductory verses of the MS of an $\bar{A}treyasanhit\bar{a}$. ³⁴²

Kharanāda is known as a medical authority in the Tibetan tradition. 343

The quotations show that the work was composed in verse and dealt with the whole range of medicine. 344 Some regard it as a treatise on kāyacikitsā, 345 but it may have been more like the Aṣṭāngahṛdayasaṃhitā, 346 although it had features in common with the Carakasaṃhitā too. 347 The absence of quotations from Kharanāda in Dalhaṇa's commentary on the Suśrutasaṃhitā suggests that it was definitely not a specialized

696 Appendix

work on śalya. The contents of the *Kharanādasaṃhitā* were in some respects related, even closely so, to those of the *Carakasaṃhitā* and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*,³⁴⁸ but one of its noteworthy features was that it frequently disagreed with the works of Caraka and Suśruta, which made the commentators meet with numerous problems, and which induced Keśava to write his *Siddhamantra* with a view to solve these controversies. ³⁴⁹ This particularity of the *Kharanādasaṃhitā* may explain that Haricandra produced a new version of the work, more in line with the *Carakasaṃhitā*, ³⁵⁰ on which he wrote a commentary. ³⁵¹ Kharanāda himself probably tried to surmount some of the difficulties posed by discrepancies between the pharmacological descriptions of the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, which made him appreciated by Keśava and Hemādri. ³⁵² The overall impression gained from the quotations is in favour of the view that Kharanāda can be regarded as a predecessor of Vāgbhata.

Noteworthy features of the *Kharanādasaṃhitā*, as shown by quotations from it, are: agreements and disagreements compared with the views of Caraka ³⁵³ and Suśruta; ³⁵⁴ more details than in the *Caraka*- and *Suśrutasaṃhitā*, ³⁵⁵ elaborate descriptions of the properties and actions of articles of food and drugs; ³⁵⁶ the distinction of fourtypes of śāka; ³⁵⁷ the use of particular technical terms; ³⁵⁸ the description of kapha as being yogavāhin; ³⁵⁹ a definition of a particular action of drugs called pramāthin; ³⁶⁰ a list of the twenty guṇas that differs from those found in Caraka and Suśruta; ³⁶¹ the acceptance of eight guṇas as vīrya; ³⁶² the recognition of six types of sātmya; ³⁶³ a particular classification of the constitutions (prakṛti); ³⁶⁴ the acceptance of only four types of viṣamajvara; ³⁶⁵ a particular view on lethal fevers; ³⁶⁶ a description of specific therapies for various types of prameha; ³⁶⁷ the distinction of thirty-six types of vātarakta; ³⁶⁸ particular rules for the ratios of ingredients of pharmaceutical preparations. ³⁶⁹

Kharanāda's chronological position depends on the date of Haricandra, who revised the *Kharanādasaṃhitā*. Haricandra is earlier than Vāgbhaṭa, which therefore applies to Kharanāda too. ³⁷⁰ As in Haricandra's case, it cannot be determined with certainty whether or not Kharanāda preceded Dṛḍhabala, but the possibility that the former belongs to an earlier period deserves to be taken into consideration. ³⁷¹

The fragment of the *Kharanādanyāsa* is dated between the seventh century and the ninth. 372

NĀGABHARTAR was the author of a *Nāgabhartṛtantra*, ³⁷³ quoted or referred to by Gaṇanāthasena, ³⁷⁴ Gangādhara, ³⁷⁵ Nāganātha in his *Nidānapradīpa*, Nārāyaṇa, ³⁷⁶ Niścalakara, ³⁷⁷ Vijayarakṣita, ³⁷⁸ and the unknown author of the interpolated portions of Niścalakara's *Ratnaprabhā*. ³⁷⁹

Part of the citations refer to one and the same subject, namely the chief seats of the dosaja varieties of quartan fever (caturthaka). The verses on this subject quoted by Vijayarakṣita and Gangādhara are identical. 380 Vācaspati's commentary on the Mā-dhavanidāna (ad 2.37–38) contains the same stanza, but ascribes it to Vāgbhaṭa, in whose works it is not found. 381 Cakrapāṇidatta remarks (ad Ca.Ci.3.72) that the pittaja type of caturthaka fever (described in pādas c and d) has been added by Hārīta, but Vijayarakṣīta claims (ad Mādhavanidāna 2.37–38) that Hārīta does not mention the seats of the three dosa is varieties of caturthaka ivara.

The quotations in Niścala's *Ratnaprabhā* indicate that the *Nāgabhartṛtantra* was a complete medical treatise, dealing with pharmacology, ³⁸² materia medica, ³⁸³ and the treatment of diseases. ³⁸⁴

NAGNAJIT³⁸⁵ is referred to in the *Bhelasaṃhitā* as a royal sage (rājarṣi, pārthivarṣi) to whom Ātreya Punarvasu, questioned by him, expounds the science of toxicology (Sū. 18). ³⁸⁶ His association with this branch of medicine is confirmed by the *Aṣṭāṇgasaṃ-graha*, where he is said to have distinguished seven stages (vega) of poisoning, which differ from the eight stages recognized by Ātreya Punarvasu (U.40.32–33). Vāgbhaṭa describes him in this way as an authority with views of his own which do not agree with Ātreya's teachings. Nagnajit's seven stages of poisoning are mentioned in the *Kairalī* commentary on the *Aṣṭāṇgaḥṛḍayasaṃhitā*. ³⁸⁷

Nagnajit is known in Buddhist 388 and Jaina 389 literature.

Aruṇadatta ³⁹⁰ quotes some verses of Nagnajit which have no connection with toxicology and deal with the seven elements (dhātu) of the human body. Śrīdāsapaṇḍita ³⁹¹ refers to Nagnajit as a member of a group of great sages (maharsi).

A Vinagnajit is one of the originators of āyurveda in Hemādri's Lakṣaṇaprakāśa. 392
Nagnajit is associated with the country of Gandhāra. The Bhelasaṃhitārelates that
the royal sage Nagnajit put his questions to Ātreya when the latter stayed in Gandhāra.
The Aitareya-393 and Śatapathabrāhmaṇa³⁹⁴ are acquainted with a king of Gandhāra
of this name. 395 A resident of Gandhāra called Nagnajit occurs in the Mahābhārata. 396

Nagnajit is not only known as a medical authority, but also as an expert in the science of architecture (vāstuśāstra). He is one of the eighteen teachers of this science in the *Matsyapurāṇa*. ³⁹⁷ Varāhamihira's *Bṛhatsaṃhitā* refers to Nagnajit's views in the same context, especially with regard to the construction of images and their proportions. ³⁹⁸ Bhaṭṭotpala, the commentator on the *Bṛhatsaṃhitā*, quotes from and refers to works by Nagnajit. ³⁹⁹

Indu equates Nagnajit and Dāruvāhin; 400 some contemporary Indian scholars share his opinion. 401

 $P\bar{A}RVATAKA^{402}$ is mentioned as the author of a treatise on children's diseases in Dalhana's *Nibandhasamgraha* (ad Su.U.1.4cd-8ab). 403 The name of Parvataka or Pārvataka is therefore found on the list of authors of a tantra on kaumārabhrtya. 404

Someone called Parvata figures among the originators of āyurveda in Hemādri's $Laksanaprak\bar{a} \pm a^{405}$

 $S\bar{a}$ TYAKI⁴⁰⁶ is an ancient medical authority regarded as a specialist in śālākya and the author of a lost tantra on that division of āyurveda. 407

Sātyaki is quoted or referred to by Cakrapāṇidatta, 408 Dalhaṇa, 409 Narasiṃha in his commentary on the $M\bar{a}dhavanid\bar{a}na$, Śrīkaṇthadatta, 410 and Vācaspati. 411

The quotations deal with diseases of the eye and the head, thus pointing to a treatise on śālākya. ⁴¹² These citations, all of them in verse, show that Sātyaki recognized a number of eighty eye diseases. ⁴¹³ His views on some of these disorders were regarded as authoritative. ⁴¹⁴ He distinguished śirahkampa (tremor of the head) as a sepa-

698 Appendix

rate entity, whereas Suśruta regards it as a form of anantavāta; ⁴¹⁵ Vāgbhaṭa ⁴¹⁶ and Śārngadhara ⁴¹⁷ follow Sātyaki in describing it as a distinct disorder. One quotation mentions that Sātyaki and Videha agree on a particular point of therapy. ⁴¹⁸

The $\it Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}rata$ mentions a Sātyaki as a friend and pupil of Arjuna and a brother of Krsna. 419

SUDĀNTASENA, ⁴²⁰ alsocalled Sudānta, is a medical authority quoted by Āḍhamalla, ⁴²¹ Gaṇanāthasena, ⁴²² Niścalakara, ⁴²³ Śivadāsasena, ⁴²⁴ Vaidyacintāmaṇi, ⁴²⁵ Śrīkaṇṭhadatta, ⁴²⁶ and Vijayaraksita, ⁴²⁷

The quotations are concerned with the actions of the excited doşas, the definitions of upasaya and rasāyana, oleation treatment (sneha), and some recipes.

Sudāntasena's treatise, obviously in verse, may have covered many aspects of medicine. His lists of the actions of the doşas, in long metres, agree with Caraka's teachings on the subject, as noticed by Vijayaraksita. 428

As is evident from the quotations, Sudantasena preceded Vijayaraksita. 429

VYADI is known as an authority on medicine, alchemy, and many other subjects, in particular grammar and lexicography. ⁴³⁰ It is a matter of no doubt that several different authors are concerned. ⁴³¹

Vyādi is quoted as a medical authority in Niścalakara's $Ratnaprabh\bar{a}^{432}$ and Ţodara's $\bar{A}yurvedasaukhya$. 433

Medical treatises referring to Vyādi or one of his works are Kāširāma's commentary on the Śārngadharasamhitā, ⁴³⁴ Kṛṣṇadatta's commentary on Trimalla's Śataślokī, Māṇikyasūri's Rasaratnasamuccaya, Śivadattamiśra's auto-commentary on the Śivakosa, ⁴³⁵ and Vāsudeva's Vāsudevānubhava. ⁴³⁶ The quotations are, at least partly, from Vyādi as a lexicographer ⁴³⁷ and grammarian. ⁴³⁸ A verse by Vyādi, probably from his lexicon, quoted from an unnamed source, is reproduced by G. Mukhopadhyaya. ⁴³⁹

The Indian tradition ascribes a lost tantra on rasāyana tohim. 440 Vyāḍi is mentioned as an adept of rasāyana (alchemy) in the *Navanāthacaritra*. 441

Works on rasaśāstra referring to or quoting Vyāḍi are the Lohasarvasva of Sureśvara, the Rasakakṣāpuṭa, Rasarājalakṣmī, Rasaratnapradīpa of Rāmarāja, Rasasindhu of Vitthala, and Rasendrasambhava.

Vyādi is mentioned as a Rasasiddha in the *Pāradasaṃhitā*, ⁴⁴² Nityanātha's *Rasaratnākara*, ⁴⁴³ the *Rasaratnasamuccaya*, ⁴⁴⁴ the *Rasatarangiṇ*, ⁴⁴⁵ and the *Sarvadarśanasaṃgraha*. ⁴⁴⁶

The Garuḍapurāṇa is acquainted with Vyāḍi as an expert on pearls and their purification. 447

A verse, calling Vyāḍi a rasācārya, kavi and mīmāṃsaka, is quoted by Paṇḍit Yudhiṣṭhira. 448

Some Indian sources claim that $Vy\bar{a}di$ lived in the Vindhyas and was a son of Nandini. ⁴⁴⁹

Tales about the alchemist Vyādi⁴⁵⁰ are told in Al-Bīrūnī's India, where he is depicted as a resident of Ujjain and a contemporary of king Vikramāditya. ⁴⁵¹ He is regarded as the teacher of Nāgārjuna and Carpati. ⁴⁵² In the sixteenth century the Tibetan

historian Tāranātha wrote about a Vyāļi from Eastern India who failed, after twelve years of striving, to gain magical powers and to make gold, and thence set off on a series of extraordinary adventures. 453

The Tibetan tradition regards Vyādi as one of the eighty-four Siddhas. The Some alchemical treatises attributed to him (Bha-li-pa) are preserved in Tibetan versions, the Rasāyanaśāstroddhrti (Gser-hgyur-gyi bstan-bcos bsdus-pa), translated by Ratnaśrī (O-rgyan-pa), Rasasiddhiśāstra (Diul-chu grub-pahi bstan-bcos), translated by Śrīnarendrabhadra and Oddyana-pa rin-chen dpal, The Sarveśvara-rasāyana. Aba A Dhātuvādaśāstra is sometimes added to this list.